

**ASSESSING THE LINK BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL WORK LIFE
PROGRAMMES AND EMPLOYEE WORK OUTCOMES AMONG
LECTURERS IN PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA**

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**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY OF THE OPEN
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2017

CERTIFICATION

The undersigned certifies that he has read and hereby recommends for acceptance by the Open University of Tanzania a thesis entitled: **“Assessing the Link Between Organizational Work Life Programmes and Employee Work Outcomes Among Lecturers in Public Universities In Kenya”** in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy of the Open University of Tanzania.

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.....

Signature

.....

Date

DEDICATION

To my wife Maureen, my children; Cindy, Kyle and Trixy; and my parents Mary and the late Philip Syindu.

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ABSTRACT

This study sought to assess the link between Organizational work life programmes, and employee work outcomes among lecturers in public universities in Kenya. The target population comprised of 6299 full time lecturers and a sample of 391 lecturers was chosen by the use of the multi-stage sampling procedure. The Correlational survey design was used in order to determine the statistical relationship between the Independent and Dependent variables. Primary data was collected by use of questionnaires. Data was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics where correlation analysis and linear regression were used. The study found that while work life programmes are available in the public universities and they enhanced positive attitudes towards work, their availability did not automatically lead to improved performance. Lecturers did not also consider their compensation as adequate and they took additional work when they had time off work to supplement their income. This affected the attainment of organizational and personal goals negatively. Remuneration was also found to have a moderating effect on the relationship between organizational work life programmes and employee work outcomes. The researcher recommends that the lecturer's pay to constitute of performance based incentives. In addition, a similar research should be done in other schools in public universities other than the Business schools since the conditions under study are different.

Key words: Correlation survey design; remuneration; work life programmes; work outcomes

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
EWO	Employee work outcome
HR	Human Resource
HRP	Human Resource Policies
JKUAT	Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
MMUST	Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology
No.	Number
OP	Organisational Policies
OWLP	Organisational Work life Programmes
R	Remuneration
Sno.	Serial number
WPN	Work Place Norms

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the research problem and research questions. It further explores the significance of the study.

1.2 Background of the Study

With the increased competition among organisations, employees tend to be overworked as they spend more time than ever at their jobs (White, et al, 2003). Overworking leads to work-home conflict, which is characterized by pressures from work and family domains, which are not mutually compatible. This conflict leads to burnout and reduced levels of performance (Lingard, & Francis, 2005). Failure to create a balance between work and home affects one's identity, well-being and quality of functioning (Cinamon & Rich, 2010). This has led to many HR practitioners now valuing the idea of introducing organisational work-life programmes that aim at enabling employees realize this balance. These are expected to improve an employee's wellbeing and improve organizational work performance (Jennings & McDougald, 2004).

Organizational work life programmes are family-friendly policies that seek to enhance the balance between time at work and social life, for example flexible work systems and the enhancement of friendly work norms (Major & Germano, 2006). Lecturers in Universities in Kenya are no exception in this elusive balance, especially

after the liberalization of the education sector in Kenya. This has led to a large student enrollment (Odinga, 2010), and the mushrooming of numerous institutions of higher education, both private and public, with inherent competition for staff. This turn of events has led to a shortage of qualified personnel (Gudo, 2012), which in turn provides the lecturers with an opportunity to seek more part time engagements to supplement their perceived low income.

Public university lecturers in Kenya are provided with organisational work life programmes that are supported by human resource (HR) and organisational policies seek to provide them with enough time for work and social lives. Such HR policies facilitate flexibility in times of reporting and leaving work. Inclusive, are a variety of leave options, while the Organizational policies provide balanced teaching load which is pegged to only nine hours per week, and manageable student consultation hours (Moi University, 2006, UON staff handbook, 2006).

An academic calendar of two semesters is also provided (six months) with an optional third semester, which they could choose to take an annual leave then or take extra load as internal part timers (Kenyatta University digest, 2012). In addition, there exists friendly work place norms that govern social relations that emphasize cooperation with, sensitivity to, and support for others, and mutual trust and respect. Such norms act as a psychological buffer against excessive performance pressures by making the organizational demands appear more tolerable (Hammer, et al 2004).

Employees engaged in a range of activities during their non-work time. For example, learning to drive, playing sport, and spending time with friends, relaxing, or even

doing major life events including a wedding; and spending time with partners, children and other family members (Bradley et al 2008). However, the achievement of the said balance may not be automatic despite the organizational work-life programmes being put in place. This is because some employees may not fully embrace them due to the fear of being viewed as less committed workers (Hewlett, 2007; Thompson, 2008). Demographic characteristics such as gender, age, and parental status have been found to inhibit the balance (Bianchi et al, 2000). Others may engage in activities that do not make them realize the balance like taking up additional jobs when away from work (Meyer et al, 2004).

University lecturers are expected to conduct research, publish articles, teach classes, advice students, participate in community work and serve on committees (Odinga, 2010). Despite the provision of organizational Work life programmes, work outcomes among lecturers continue to fall below the expected levels (Wesangula, 2014). A research conducted by Bigambo (2004) on the output of University Lecturers in Kenya found out that the performance of lecturers in Kenyan Public Universities was below expectations and set standards. This is so despite the availability of Organisational work life programmes which are supposed to assist in alleviating difficulties in managing multiple roles, and therefore facilitating employee's quality of life, and performance (Haar & Roche, 2010).

The role of remuneration to employees cannot be overemphasized. The management study guide (2010) notes that remuneration is a method of promoting morale and increasing motivation. Enough or sufficient package implies that the employee will

be able to meet their economic obligations. Poor remuneration on the other hand leads to low work commitment, low motivation and even seeking of alternative pay (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, (2011). Lecturers in Kenyan public universities and the East African region generally are considered to be poorly paid (Waswa & Katana, 2008; KIPPRA, 2012).

A study done by a group of experts appointed by a committee of all vice chancellors of public universities in Kenya in 2011 found that public universities in Rwanda and Tanzania pay higher salaries to lecturers than those in Kenya and Uganda (Varghese, 2013). The researchers also collected evidence on what is paid by six top universities in Kenya, and concluded that salaries and allowances by public universities are lower than those of other professionals. This has led to industrial action in the form of Lecturer strikes in public universities in Kenya in 1993, 1997, 2003, 2007, 2012, 2014 and 2017, over low wage issues.

Due to the low pay, it is the norm to find faculty staff even crossing borders to provide academic support like teaching, providing medical services in hospitals setting up consultancy firms, all for additional income, in addition to undertaking academic responsibilities at their home institutions (Wesangula, 2014). Similarly, the working schedule for academic staff of most Universities has shifted from 08.00am to 5.00pm Monday to Friday to all the days of the week and all the time. Low pay is therefore likely to inhibit the success of the Organisational work life programmes as the lecturers go for part time engagements during this “free” time. This is backed by the Role conflict theory which hypothesizes that the longer time is spent at work the more the increase in levels of role conflict with home roles (Baryamureeba, 2013).

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Organisational work life programmes seek to ensure that employees realize a balance in their work and social lives, otherwise known as work life balance. Work-life balance involves effectively managing the juggling act between paid work and all other activities that are important to people such as family community activities, voluntary work, personal development and leisure and recreation (Dundas, 2008).

This in turn enhances satisfaction at work and therefore better performance among employees (Broers, 2005). The ability to strike such a balance is perceived to be important among workers globally, and therefore academics in higher education institutions are not an exception (Mohd et al 2009). Ervin (2012) asserts that this can be realized through individual employee input, and better managing time. However, organizations still need to play the most critical role by putting in place Work life programmes that enhance the realization of this much elusive balance.

Public universities in Kenya provide their faculty members with an array of options which are aimed at enhancing the much elusive balance. Flexible working schedules coupled with HR policies that peg their work load to a manageable one, and conformity to statutory employee benefits such as leave with pay; flexible academic calendars not to forget the work norms which backed by the organization culture and informal organization largely contribute to realizing this balance. However, Kenya's higher education is still dogged with questions about quality especially after the liberalization of the higher education sector. Issues concerning the preparedness of faculty members to handle the increasing student numbers are of concern. This leads

to the aspersions that faculty members do not seem to be keen on personal growth, leading to some faculties having insufficient numbers of qualified staff.

It is worth noting that Work life programmes have been explored in the context of profit making organizations (English, 2003). They have also been studied within higher education organizations (Johnsrud & Rosser, 2000, Ervin, 2012). Most of the studies have attributed an improvement in performance when the said programmes are effective (Eaton, 2003). However, there is not sufficient evidence to support the notion that Organisational work-life programmes compromise on employee work outcomes rather than enhance them, especially so where employees consider their remuneration inadequate. Lecturers in Kenyan public universities are poorly paid (Waswa & Katana, 2008) and therefore seek to compensate on their income during the time availed to non-work time. In light of this, this study seeks to assess the link between organizational work life programmes, and employee work outcomes among lecturers in public universities in Kenya.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

1.4.1 General Objective

The main aim of this study was to establish the link between Organisational work life programmes and Employee work outcomes among lecturers in Public Universities in Kenya.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

- (i) To assess the relationship between Organizational policies and Employee work outcomes among lecturers of public universities in Kenya.

- (ii) To examine the relationship between Work place norms and Employee work outcomes among lecturers of public universities in Kenya.
- (iii) To determine the moderating effect of Remuneration on the relationship between Organisational work life programmes and Employee work outcomes among lecturers of public universities in Kenya.

1.5 Research Questions

- (i) How do Organisational policies relate to Employee work outcomes among lecturers of public universities in Kenya?
- (ii) What is the relationship between Work place norms and Employee work outcomes among lecturers of public universities in Kenya?
- (iii) In what way does Remuneration affect the relationship between Organisational work life programmes and Employee Work outcomes among lecturers of public universities in Kenya?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The importance of this research to other researchers cannot be overemphasized. This is because little research exists on Organisational work life programmes in relation to decreased employee outcomes, and especially among lecturers in public universities. It will also benefit those exploring work life dimensions and theories. Lecturers in institutions of higher education could also discover ways of taking advantage of the Work life programmes provided by the organization. This will enable them realize quality social life, improved performance, manage their careers better and advance in their professions.

Human Resource practitioners on the other hand may use information from this research to improve on or even effect changes in policy and practice in order to ensure that the Organisational work life programmes provided to employees realize the desired employee outcomes. Administrators in public universities and other institutions of higher education with similar policies will be able to handle day to day operations relating to faculty members and plan well. This is so since they will get better insight from this research on Organisational work life programmes in order to recruit and retain the best faculty.

1.7 Organisation of the Study

This thesis is structured into; Chapter One which provides the research background, research objectives, research questions and the significance of the study; Chapter two presents the Literature Review while Chapter three present the Research methodology. Chapter four presents the Results of data analysis, while Chapter five gives Discussion to the findings. Finally, Chapter Six presents the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, some of the concepts that have been used in the study have been described. Theories that relate to the study have been discussed and their relevance to the study explored. In addition, the literature that relates to the independent, dependent and moderating variables have been discussed. Empirical literature from past studies has been reviewed. The chapter also presents the conceptual framework, and the operationalization of the research variables. Lastly, the existing knowledge gaps are determined.

2.2 Definitions of Concepts

Employee work outcomes: These are the results that are expected of the lecturers as they execute their work related duties. In this study, they are classified into two. First, are the organizational work outcomes. These are the results expected of the lecturers by the organization, and are meant to enable the Organisation (university) realise its goals. For example, the number of students supervised, research exercises undertaken like publications, attendance and presentation in conferences, courses taught, examined, marked and marks submitted on time, courses attended per year etcetera.

Secondly, the individual outcomes are those results that the lecturers should derive from their work experience that are over and above the organizational expectations. They enhance the lecturers' individual growth, for example, academic publications, involvement in community service, presentations made in conferences, offering consultancy services etcetera. (Allen 2001).

Lecturers: these are members of faculty whose main duties include teaching and related tasks. They do not hold any administrative positions. They are classified as Tutorial fellows, Assistant lecturers, Lecturers and Senior lecturers, Associate Professors and Professors (UON staff handbook, 2006).

Remuneration: this is the payment in monetary terms given to lecturers by their employer- in this case the university they work for- after a period of one month for the execution of the duties and responsibilities they have been assigned by the employer as agreed in the employment contract (Herzberg et al 2011).

Organizational work life programs: these are policies and programmes that the public universities have adopted with an aim of ensuring that the lecturers are able to have sufficient time for their social lives as much as they spend time at work doing work related duties. In this study they have been classified into two. First, Organisational policies, for example, flexible work systems leave options, work autonomy, use of technology for work purposes, favourable work load and academic calendar and the enhancement of employees' functional work behavior (Muli, 2014)

Secondly, Work place norms are implied ways of doing things which arise from the informal organization that members of the organization are in agreement of and they determine the manner in which the lecturers relate to and interact with one another especially on matters that relate to work. These include social support, and informal organization (Hammer et al, 2004).

Work life balance: this is a situation where an employee has sufficient time for both their social lives and work lives, such that there is no tendency that emphasis is laid on one area at the expense of the other (Clarke et al, 2004).

2.3 Theoretical Review

2.3.1 Role Conflict Theory

The Role Conflict Theory as espoused by Kahn et al, (1964) has been instrumental in research on work life balance (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The theory sought to highlight the danger of having conflict between work and family life and its effect on employees' performance (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Greenhaus and Beutell (2001) identified two forms of work-life role conflict that is, time-based conflict and strain based conflict. Time based conflict in one role makes it hard for one to realize the demands of another role while Strain-based conflict is manifest through tension, anxiety, fatigue, and irritability.

Muli (2014) asserts that the Role conflict theory is instrumental in work life studies since points out the need work life initiatives in realizing good performance among employees. When their needs and expectations are met, employees tend to develop stronger affective attachment to the organisation than those whose wants were not met (Wang & Walumbwa, 2011). It is worth noting that the longer time is spent at work the more the increase in levels of role conflict. This pressure (Conflict) arising from both work and home roles make it difficult for people to successfully perform the roles that they are assigned at work (O'Laughlin & Bischoff, 2005).

The Role theory is suited to this study since it brings insight on the role of Organisational work life programmes on performance. The work life programmes are given in organisations to ensure that employees have ample time for their work and social lives. According to Muli (2014) the conflict between work and life will lead to unsatisfactory work outcomes among employees and therefore the need to have

proper policies to inhibit the conflict. In this study, the manner in which the lecturers utilize the ‘social’ time (whether they take up additional work or spend it on social life) determines if the work outcomes will be enhanced or reduced.

2.3.2 Social Support Theory

Barnes (1954) came up with the social support theory. It explains how the social structure of relationships around a person, group, or organization affects beliefs or behaviors in the organisation. Workplace social support is the degree to which individuals perceive that their well-being is valued by workplace sources, such as supervisors and the broader organization in which they are embedded (Eisenberger et al, 2002) and the perception that these sources provide help to support this well-being.

The theory posits that the social networks enhance social support, which helps employees cope with work related issues. Causal pressures are inherent in the social structure and therefore the need for employees to reciprocate ‘favours’ so that they in return benefit in future. The social support found among employees makes them feel loved, valued, their well-being cared about as part of a social network of mutual obligation (Sarason, 2013). Others have viewed social support as involving perceptions that one has access to helping relationships of varying quality or strength, which provide support resources such as communication of information, emotional empathy, or tangible assistance (Ford et al, 2007).

This theory focuses on the relationships between people. These relationships may include the exchange of information or more tangible exchanges such as goods and

money or even work exchanges for example standing in for one at work in return for the same or even different type of work. Since the patterns of relationships bring employees into contact with the attitudes and behaviors of other organizational members, these relationships may also help to explain why employees develop certain attitudes toward organizational events or job-related matters.

In addition, the theory opines that individuals personify organizations by attributing human-like characteristics to them and that they develop positive social exchanges with organizations that are supportive (Eisenberger, et al, 2001). Hammer (2011) notes that social support emanates from multiple sources, such as supervisors, coworkers, and employing organizations, or attitudes such as empathy with one's desire for work and family balance.

This theory's relevance to this study cannot be overstated. It brings insight to the importance of organizational work life programmes such as work place norms, supportive culture, flexible work arrangements, HR work family support etcetera, on performance. Lack of social support will lead poor employee performance, since, social support helps employees to cope with work related issues and therefore enhance their work outcomes (Ford et al, 2007).

2.3.2 Equity Theory

The Equity theory by Adams (1965) posits that employees will compare their rewards with what others receive, as much as they are concerned with the rewards they receive for their efforts. The theory is based on people's perception of fairness or equity which is usually subjective. According to Spector (2008), employees seek

to maintain equity between the input that they bring into work such as education, time, experience, commitment and effort and the outcome they receive such as promotion, recognition and increased pay against the perceived inputs and outcomes of other employees.

Equity theory has it those employees who perceive themselves as either under rewarded or over rewarded will experience distress, and that this leads to efforts to restore equity within the organisation. Mowday and Colwell (2013) assert that employees' performance will be negatively affected by a perception of poor pay. Failing to find equity may make them behave in ways that will harm the organization (Hellriegel et al, 2004). For example, employees will withhold effort and reduce work inputs, displaying feelings of hostility to coworkers and the organisation itself, and seeking salary increases, challenging superiors about tasks assigned, as well as quitting the job or seeking alternative sources of income elsewhere. The equity theory therefore explains the behavior associated with employees who perceive their remuneration to be inadequate. This includes withholding effort and reduce work inputs, among others.

This theory is suitable to this study since it helps to bring insight to the effect of employee compensation on other policies and practices that aim at enhancing employee wellbeing. Lecturers who perceive themselves as being poorly compensated will seek alternative sources of income. This will be realized by taking advantage of the work life initiatives which provide them with time for their social lives, which they may consider as 'free time', since it is time away from their work, and is not supervised. This in turn makes them overwhelmed by the conflict between

work and family roles due to the additional the work taken to compensate on their income, and thereby lead to inferior work outcomes due to fatigue, lack of preparedness, etcetera.

2.4 Conceptual Issues

2.4.1 Organizational Work Life Programmes

Organizational Work Life Programs are policies that seek to enhance the balance between work and social life. Various organizations provide an array of options with a view of making their employees attain work life balance. The nature of Organisational policies an organization puts in place greatly determines the ability of employees to realize the balance between work and family life. Such policies include Human Resource Policies.

Organizations are developing Human Resource (HR) policies that help employees realize this balance. For example, by developing people through training so that they can manage the balance better, providing back-up support and breaks from work (Maxwell, 2005). Human Resource flexibility is another HR policy where Organizations give employees an opportunity to determine their work schedules as an incentive of employment (Kara et al, 2002). Employees with greater flexibility are able to work longer. In addition, perceived flexibility enables employees to co-ordinate their work and non-work activities better. This requires the use of programmes that lead to the realization of workforce flexibility such as flextime, voluntary shifts to part-time work, job sharing, work-at-home options, and flexible leaves (Johnson, 2004).

Manuel and Ramos (2008) classified work-life initiatives into time-based, information and money based. Time-based initiatives include flexi-time, telecommuting and job sharing; Information-based initiatives are relocation assistance, elder care resources, company work/life balance and the intranet; Money-based initiatives include leave with pay, scholarships for dependents, services like onsite childcare, concierge services and takeout dinners.

Lecturers in Public Universities in Kenya are no exception in this elusive balance, especially after the liberalization of the education sector in Kenya leading to high student enrolment without a reciprocating increase in the number of staff (Odinga, 2010). The public universities provide their staff with policies that facilitate flexibility in times of reporting and leaving work, a variety of leave options, while the Organizational policies provide balanced teaching load which is pegged to only nine hours per week, and manageable student consultation hours (Moi University, 2006, UON staff handbook, 2006), an academic calendar of two semesters totaling two of six months with an optional third semester, which they could choose to take an annual leave then or take extra load as internal part timers (Kenyatta University digest, 2012).

It is worth noting that the HR policies adopted should greatly discourage practices that discourage the achievement of the balance (Wilk, 2013). For example, presenteeism which is common in employment today due to global economic hardships is a known hindrance to the achievement of work-life balance (McLaughlin, 2006). Deery et al, (2008) opine that presenteeism is the overwhelming need to put in more hours or, at the very least, appear to be working

very long hours by an employee. Workplace supportiveness is important to enhance the effectiveness of Organisational work life programmes (NSCW, 1997). The impact of work-life programs may be meaningless if organizations fail to take into account the effects spill over from work into employees' personal lives (Voydanoff, 2004).

A review of literature by Glisnky and Stein (1990) found that employee's relationship with the supervisor was a significant factor in determining an employee's perception of his or her ability to balance work and family domains. Similar sentiments were aired by Simard (2011). In their research on implementation of work life policies, Ryan and Kossek (2008) found that supervisor support will affect the degree to which work-life practices are seen by employees realizing their work-life needs and a sign of having the backing of the organization.

In his research, on an American Bar Association Cunningham (2001) cites a report that shows that despite 95% of American law firms having a part-time employment policy, only 3% of lawyers have made use of it. This was attributed to the perception that using work-life practices will have a negative impact on their career prospects and therefore served as a demotivator for employees' use of these practices (Kodz et al, 2002). This can be supported by Cooper and Schindler (2008) findings that employees who frequently teleported have been associated with professional isolation, and lack professional of development activities. They lack interpersonal networking, informal learning, and participating in mentoring relationships. This perception tends to be emphasized by organizational cultures that are unsupportive of work-life programmes. For example, Ryan and Kossek (2008) studied organizations

that have a culture where employees work for long-hours and that have unaccommodating attitudes among managers and co-workers. They found that such organisations are likely to discourage employees from making use of the organisational work-life practices that are available to them.

The Operational policies that organizations adopt at work are also likely to determine whether Organisational work life programmes' effectiveness will be realized or not. Such policies may relate to factors at work and performance standards (Jennings & McDougald, 2007). Public universities in Kenya have academic calendar of two semesters totaling to a total of six months with an optional third semester, which they could choose to take an annual leave then or take extra load as internal part timers (Kenyatta University digest, 2012). Flexibility is also to be found in Lecturer student arrangement on the time to teach. It is normal to find staff teaching or holding supervision meetings with their graduate students over the weekend, late in the evening or very early in the morning (Baryamureeba, 2013).

In Kenya, most universities have campuses in Nairobi or its neighborhood. This is so since this is the area with the highest concentration of PhD holders and qualified faculty staff in the whole country. As a result, it is normal to have staff teaching in more than three higher education institutions. Over the years the working schedule for academic staff of most Universities if not all has shifted from 08.00am to 5.00pm Monday to Friday to all the days of the week and all the time. It is normal to find staff in class at 6.00 a.m in the morning and beyond 5.00 p.m in the evening during normal working days in addition to teaching on Saturday and Sunday (Baryamureeba, 2013).

Majority of organizations today are introducing new technology and work practices that require greater flexibility in order to cope with competition (Haworth & Lewis, 2005). The Technology that an organization adopts may both enhance and hinder work-life balance. Technological use better improves accessibility to clients and the employees leading to working twenty-four hours a day, seven days a week (Maxwell & McDougall, 2004). This change means employees work more outside regular office hours which have led to an imbalance on employee's home life. Expectations are that employees should take whatever time is required to get the job done; meaning that they are more often than not on the job. A research on the organizational effects of work life practices by Kersley et al (as cited by Beauregard, 2009) found that sophisticated communications technology led to an increased contact with the workplace and therefore hindered the balance between work and home.

Most of the staff in public universities in Kenya prefer to work from home especially when not teaching. This is due to lack of offices or adequate space in offices due to sharing. Others will use the internet when dealing with the students they supervise. This saves them on fuel and interruptions when using their precious time to do research. Advancements in technology have further propelled working from home since social collaborations can now be made ubiquitously (Baryamureeba, 2013). This leads to additional work hours, meaning a subtraction from home time (White et al, 2003). It has been noted that employees who work longer hours, higher workloads, and those that experience job insecurities tend to have a poor balance of work and life (Haworth & Lewis, 2005). Sambasivan and Ismail (2008) assert that employees

with jobs that require substantial interaction with others, additional work roles, and professional responsibility are likely to experience greater numbers of work life balance issues. Employees doing managerial or higher status jobs tend to have higher levels of conflict between work and their personal life (Sambasivan & Ismail, 2008).

Employees without autonomy over their work are more likely to face a work and family imbalance (Baral & Bhargava, 2010; Jennings & McDougald, 2007). This leads to increased absence rates and lateness (Bond & Bunce, 2001). Increased autonomy leads to discretion over working conditions and scope for social interactions (Baral & Bhargava 2010). Lecturers in public universities have the mandate to determine their working time as long as there is an agreement with the students. They set exams and even mark them without due involvement of their supervisors in their work (Odinga 2010).

Work place norms have also been adopted by organizations to enhance the effectiveness of Organisational work life programmes (Wright & MacMahan, 2010). They are collectively agreed-upon behaviours that prescribe the ways in which members of an organization should approach their work and interact with one another (Hammer et al, 2004) and they have been found to influence the effectiveness of Organisational work life programmes (Md-Sidin, Sambasivan, & Ismail, 2010). Work place norms will be influenced by the nature of Social Support systems found in an organization. Social support is a non - formal social network that gives people an opportunity to relay their emotional concerns or empathy, practical assistance, informational support or appraisal (Md-Sidin et al, 2010).

It has been found that increased social support leads to increased health and well-being (Md-Sidin et al, 2010). Likewise, Lowe (2005) also underscores the importance of strong employment relationships in the achievement of work-life balance. Employees with social support create a buffering effect which helps them to cope with work-family conflict (Martins et al, 2002; Cinamon & Rich, 2010). Employers can enhance Social support by formally recognizing the importance of an employee's family by supporting other activities not directly related to career success (Boles, Johnston, & Hair, 1997). Perceived organizational support can also be used as an indicator of favorable treatment, prompting reciprocal positive actions from employees. This proposition finds support in the results of Allen (2001), which indicated that perceptions of the organization as being family-supportive mediated the link between work-life practice availability and both affective commitment and job satisfaction. This is evident in public universities as lecturers are supportive in social life by being allowed to belong to employee welfare schemes, and even at work where 'local arrangements' seek to provide work related support (UON staff handbook, 2006).

Work place norms may also be shaped by the Organization's culture which gives employees identification and direction (Martel, 2002). A strong organizational culture greatly determines employee behavior. It inspires employee decisions, provides fixed points of reference and stability and aligns employees with diverse interests around shared goals (Houston, 2005). It is worth noting that work life balance programs cannot yield expected results unless the organizational culture supports use of work-life balance programs (Porter & Ayman, 2010). Previous

research has shown that having supportive work-family culture and informal support greatly help deal work-family conflict (Major & Germano, 2006). “Work-life culture” is an emerging concept that seems to greatly influence both the utilization of work-life benefits and employee effectiveness at work (Thompson et al,1999). Research on factors beyond the availability of work-life programs (Regan, 1994) suggests organization should go beyond to adopting organizational work-life initiatives; rather they must work toward making their culture to bring forth a “truly family-friendly organization”.

Nevertheless, some workplace norms may provide a competitive environment. Although competition is perceived positively, it can also make working life more difficult (Bloom & Reenen, 2006). Competition sometimes is negative because it leads to high-performance practices that lead to negative spillover (White et al., 2003). If an organization experiences high turnover, the excess workload will be felt by the remaining employees (Porter & Alman, 2010).

A research done in New Zealand on employees in large organizations that sought to determine the costs and benefits of work life policies found a number of benefits. For example, reduced absenteeism and stress, improved recruitment and retention rates, and greater employee satisfaction and productivity were realized where work life programmes were in place. The cost included difficulties in assessing the net impact of work-life balance policies and employment issues related to unresolved conflicts between work and personal lives. These costs are borne by the organization through reduced productivity, (Yasbek, 2004). In their research on work life practices, Glass

and Finley (2002) recommend that the determination of the effect of work-life practices be enhanced by better measurement of specific practices and practice combinations, and by focusing on the function of the practice (e.g., reducing work hours, increasing schedule flexibility, or assisting with care giving responsibilities).

However, it has also been found that employees may not always utilize some of the Work-life benefits provided at work (Thompson et al, 1999). Some may not be aware of the policies on offer, Pleck, 1989, cited in Thomas & Ganster, 1995), while others may fear the perception they are not committed to work when they take advantage of the policies more often (Porter & Ayman, 2010). A Research conducted amongst organizations to determine employee awareness of work life practices provide for them in the UK found that a large number of employees often are unaware of their work-life entitlements despite the implementation of work-life balance practices (Kodz et al, 2002; Lewis et al, 2000).

In a survey of 945 employees in six different organizations across three sectors of employment (local government, supermarkets, and retail banking), Yeandle et al (2002) found that 50% of employees were unaware of the family-friendly practices offered by their organizations. It is worth noting that even when employees were aware of the practices provided for them, many were reluctant to use them. A research by Liff and Cameron (1997) that sought to determine the use of work place practices provided shows that, many organizations do not formally monitor their work-life practices, on the assumption that since the practices are being offered, they are being made use of.

However, Hyman and Juliet (2004) in their study on ‘Work-life employment practices in the modern economy’ dispute the success of work life balance initiatives offered by organizations in the UK despite legislation on the same. They point out some problems that hinder the use of work life programmes; lack of uniformity in the adoption of the programmes across different organizations, failure to formalize the policies, restricted employee voice over the introduction and implementation of policies, most of the programmes target business rather than employee needs, continued work intrusions into family life and that domestic responsibilities are still conducted primarily by women irrespective of their employment status. The researchers conclude that many employees continue to face difficulty in attaining work and family balance despite a legislation to enhance the availability of the programmes.

2.4.1.1 Work life Balance

Work-life balance has been defined in quite a number of ways. Clarke et al, (2004) defined it as a satisfactory level of involvement or ‘fit’ between the multiple roles in a person’s life. It has also been defined as the stability characterized by the balancing of an individual’s life complexity and dynamism with environmental and personal resources such as family, community, employer, profession, geography, information, economics, personality, or values (Crooker, 2002: 389).

While there is no one accepted definition of what constitutes a work-life balance practice, the term usually refers to one of the following: organizational support for dependent care, flexible work options, and family or personal leave (Estes & Michael, 2005).

According to the Human Solutions Report (Lowe, 2007), a substantial number of employees are experiencing an imbalance of work and family life. The report further asserts that dual-earner families have increased over time, so have expectations of job performance. Thus, work-life balance has become both a dream and a mission to achieve. Clark (2001) notes that the relationship synergy between work and home may be a very rare occurrence. Hill, et al, 2001); Tausig and Fenwick (2001) measured work-life balance using two items: the extent to which workers feel successful in balancing Work and personal life, and the amount of conflict they face in balancing work and personal life.

A number of Organisational programmes have been adopted to achieve this balance. This includes ‘family-friendly policies’ such as flexible working arrangements that bestow upon the employees working provisions that will be able to strike a balance in both responsibilities at work and at home. (Redmond et al, 2006) Universities in Kenya provide programmes such as flexibility in times of reporting and leaving work, a variety of leave options. Organizational policies provide balanced teaching load which is pegged to only nine hours per week, and manageable student consultation hours (Moi University, 2006, UON staff handbook, 2006). In addition, an academic calendar of two semesters totaling two of six months with an optional third semester, which they could choose to take an annual leave then or take extra load as internal part timers (Kenyatta University digest, 2012). Greenhaus et al (2003) explored three aspects of work-life balance. Time balance, concerns the amount of time given to work and non-work roles. Involvement balance is the level of psychological involvement in, or commitment to, work and non-work roles, while satisfaction

balance is the level of satisfaction with work and non-work roles. It is worth noting that Work-life imbalance occurs when fulfilling one role makes it not possible to fulfill the other roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 2006).

Duxbury and Higgins (2001) assert that the realization of work and family balance are both an issue for the employer and the employee which should be enhanced from the two fronts. Lowe (2007) says that individual employee has the capability to reduce work-life conflicts through perceived control and attitudes toward work. Similarly, Redmond et al., (2006) asserts that personal fulfillment is important inside work and that satisfaction outside work may enhance employees' contribution to work. It is worth noting that the activities people engage in during the 'free' time greatly determine if the balance will be realized or not. Research on how workers spend their non-work time when Organisational work life programmes are put in place showed that some employees spend this time with their friends and family, learning new skills, and relaxing (Bradley et al, 2008).

Some employees fail to take advantage of the programmes for fear of being viewed as less committed workers (Hewlett, 2007; Thompson, 2008). Others may engage in activities that do not make them realize the balance like taking up additional jobs when away from work (Meyer et al, 2004; Baryamureeba, 2013). Similarly, other studies have indicated that personal characteristics such as gender, age, and parental status are also a determinant in the realization of work life balance (Bianchi et al, 2000). Taking up additional work on a part time basis may also be considered to be some of the activities taken and especially among lecturers in Kenyan public universities who are underpaid. The working schedule for academic staff of most

Universities if not all has shifted from 08.00am to 5.00pm Monday to Friday to all the days of the week and all the time (Baryamureeba, 2013).

The importance of work life balance on productivity cannot be overemphasized. An online survey that sought to determine Work -Life Balance and intention to leave the organization among Academics in Malaysian Public Higher Education Institutions on three Public Universities among 1078 lecturers found that perceived work-life balance led to job satisfaction and therefore employee retention (Noor, 2011).

2.4.2 Remuneration

This study has remuneration as a moderator on the effect of organisational work life programmes on organisational outcomes. Employee remuneration can be said to be the reward or compensation given to the employees for their work performances (Herzberg et al 2011). According to Management Study Guide (2010) remuneration is a method of promoting morale, increasing motivation and foster team cohesion. Dessler (2002) defines employee remuneration as all forms of pay going to employees and arising from their employment. She also noted that some scholars will occasionally substitute the term remuneration to compensation.

There two main types of employee remuneration, namely, piece rate method and time rate method. The former is compensation based on unit productivity, for example, a lecturer taking up a class and being paid per the class (as a part time lecturer). The latter is the time an employee spends on a job, for example the monthly wages paid to lecturers. Total package or take home pay is very important for employees (Moncarz, Zhao, & Kay, 2009). Direct remuneration includes

employee wages and salaries, incentive payments, bonuses and commissions, while indirect compensation comprises of the fringe benefits that constitute of health care, life insurance, subsidized lunch, leave with pay, overtime, pension plan and transportation policies (Willis, 2000).

Enough or sufficient package implies that the employee will be able to meet his or her economic obligations. This is likely to lead to increased motivation and therefore increase the organizational commitment to the organisation and reduce the tendency to think about other job opportunities (Mitchell et al, 2001). It is worth noting that the nature of remuneration is one of the basic reasons for workers seek employment in an organization. Harrison & Liska (as cited by Idemobi et al, 2011) in their study that sought determine the reason why people seek employment, they affirm that remuneration (reward) is the center piece of the employment contract.

Insufficient remuneration has been found to push employees into taking additional jobs outside their work place, and especially so if the employees feel that other professions that take up similar qualifications to theirs are paid better. A study done by a group of experts appointed by a committee of all vice chancellors of public universities in Kenya in 2011 found that Public universities in Rwanda and Tanzania pay higher salaries to lecturers than those in Kenya and Uganda. The researchers also collected evidence on what is paid by six top private universities in Kenya, and concluded that salaries and allowances by public universities are lower than those of other professionals (KIPPRA, 2012). Nel et al, (2004) found that employees will compare themselves with their colleagues in terms of salary and their inputs to their

job and this will inherently affect their performance. This gives credence to the Equity theory where employee's comparison of their compensation with others affects their work behavior.

Poor remuneration leads to low work commitment, low motivation, seeking alternative pay and low employee retention (Herzberg et al 2011; Boggie, 2005). It is worth noting that lecturers in Kenyan public and the East African region generally are considered to be poorly paid (Waswa & Katana, 2008; KIPPRA, 2012). In that regard, it is normal to find a professor working at more than two universities in a bid to supplement the meager salary at the mother university (Baryamureeba, 2013). Despite the sharp increase in universities in Kenya, both public and private, the number of qualified staff has not increased proportionately (Baryamureeba, 2013). This provides the lecturers with ready opportunities to take up part time commitments (Odinga 2010).

It is the norm to find faculty staff even crossing borders to provide academic support that includes teaching for extra pay. Some staff, especially in the medical disciplines, travel to as far as South Africa on a weekly basis to provide services in hospitals in addition to undertaking academic responsibilities at their home institutions. In the business, ICT and engineering disciplines, the norm is to set up consultancy firms to supplement their income. Others prefer to work from home especially when not teaching or even use the internet when dealing with the students they supervise in a bid to save on fuel. (Baryamureeba, 2013). Qualified academic staff have resigned from Kenyan public universities and secured better paying jobs abroad (Waswa & Katana, 2008), so has been seen with movement of highly skilled academics to other

sectors in the country (GOK, 2006). However, it is worth noting that good pay is not the only factor that enhances retention. This is because even highly paid employees may still be dissatisfied if they do not like the nature of their job (Young et al, 1998).

Such is the case with lecturers in public universities in Kenya who take up additional jobs to supplement their income. Gaag, Van der, Stelcner and Vijverberg (1989) found that moonlighting is much more prevalent among civil servants than among wage earners in the private sector in Cote d'Ivoire, who considered themselves underpaid. This view is supported by Boatengi et al (2013) who found that People engage in moonlighting for various reasons, including the need to overcome financial constraints. This could be attributed to the public servant's perception that their remuneration as low.

Dean (2007), in his study on 'The realities of work-life balance in a low-income neighbourhood' found that work-life balance is likely to mean something quite different to a highly paid employee than that to a lesser paid worker. Although the respondents welcomed the idea of work-life balance, they were doubtful as to whether it could be achieved in practice. Stress and long hours of work were seen to be unavoidable. Alternatively, income had to be forgone in order to realise the 'family-friendly' working conditions. The study found that the respondents (parents) wanted more job opportunities and better pay in order to appreciate the work life initiatives. Similarly, Bianchi et al (2000) found that some employees took up additional work on a part time basis when they had time for social lives, especially when they considered remuneration as inadequate.

Similarly, In Ghana, the practice of taking up additional jobs is more prevalent in the public sector than the private formal sector due partly to strict supervision and higher wages in the latter which make the general environment less conducive for such activities (Owusu, 2001). In the public sector, teachers and lecturers were found to have highest participation rate in multiple economic activities. Doctors on the other hand are the least likely to engage in multiple activities because of availability of overtime opportunities within their formal employment (Owusu, 2005). Lecturers, it was found, have a flexible work schedule which gives them the opportunity to take additional jobs. The situation is similar in Nigeria. In their study on moonlighting among University Lecturers and their performance in the South-Western Nigeria, Ologunde et al (2013) note that lecturers in Nigerian universities are no longer leaving for greener pastures abroad. Many now have multiple income sources by teaching in many universities locally, at the same time.

This is highly attributed to the need to supplement their income and the flexibility in their work which give them time to moonlight. They engage in part-time work elsewhere to earn additional income as a surviving strategy. Some negative effects associated with moonlighting including potential conflicts between the demands of the worker's primary and secondary jobs and the subsequent lack of time for social life (ILO, 2004) with declining productivity effects. Ologunde et al (2013) found that having to teach in many places (moonlighting) has negative implications on the performance of Nigerian university lecturers.

The quality of teaching decreases as the time available for administration and research also reduces. For example, if high performers leave an organization the

organisation is likely to lose its productive talent and competitive advantage (Mensah, 2014). If employees seek alternative sources of income, this will no doubt eat into organizational time thereby affecting employee work outcomes, as is the case with lecturers in public universities in Kenya.

Studies on work life programmes have identified a number of moderators on work life practice-outcomes. In their research on organizational commitment for banking employees in China and Thailand, Wang et al (2007) found that the availability of flexible work arrangements was associated with increased performance only when employees perceived their supervisors to exhibit transformational leadership behaviors, and having individual consideration. Kossek and Ozeki's (1999) review found that a flexible work hour's policy is positively related to organizational outcomes only if employees are able to increase their control over their time schedules. Kersley et al (as cited by Beauregard, 2009) in their research on the organizational effects of work life practices, found that demographic and workplace changes like increased numbers of working women, age, more hours at work, and sophisticated communications decreased the sought balance. Similarly, in a study by Casper and Harris (2008), on the impact of work-life practice availability on organizational commitment was moderated by gender and by practice use (Belgard & Lesley, 2009).

In a study on higher education employees in Malaysia that sought to establish the link between work-life balance practices and organizational performance, it was found that work life balance practices can influence performance. This can be through factors like enhanced social exchange processes, increased cost savings,

improved productivity, and reduced turnover. However, the impact of these processes may be moderated by the national context, job level, and managerial support (Beauregard & Henry, 2009). Furthermore, other studies have previously focused on other moderators like role of leadership to predict the relationship between work life initiatives and performance (Wright et al, 2005). Further, a study carried out in Kenya by Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke (2010) show that leadership directly and indirectly influences key individual and organisational outcomes towards employees' performance.

Remuneration is a key component in employment since most employees work to earn an income. Chew and Chan (2008) found that there is an underlying assumption that money can influence behaviour hence a fair remuneration is understood to be the cornerstone of the contractual and implied agreement between employees and employers. A number of studies have established that highly competitive wage systems promote employee commitment and thus result in the attraction and retention and commitment of a superior workforce (Wekesa & Nyaroo, 2013; Becker & Huselid, 2004). Mathis and Jackson (2004) also argued that a balanced, fair and competitive compensation and reward system affect the commitment of employees.

Lai (2009) asserts that an appropriate remuneration system should comprise of intrinsic rewards. For example, responsibility, autonomy, appreciation and feelings of accomplishment among others. Extrinsic rewards on the other hand include pay, bonuses and fringe benefits. This therefore makes developing an effective and appropriate compensation system very important. This is because an effective and appropriate compensation system can help to attract and retain competent and

talented individuals who can help the organization accomplish its mission and goals (Dessler, 2002). It has also been noted that failure to design appropriate compensation system will have an unfavorable impact on productivity and job satisfaction of employees and overall effectiveness of the organization (Neo et al, 2006).

2.4.3 Employee Work Outcomes

The effectiveness of Organisational work-life programmes leads to outcomes both organizational and personal in nature. Most employers will implement work-life programmes since they anticipate economic gains arising from increased employee productivity and reduced turnover as a result of such programmes (Allen, 2001). Employees on the other hand experience many positive outcomes when they feel that they have a balance between work and social life. This therefore means that failure to realize the balance leads to the negative outcomes in both spheres.

Effectiveness in Organisational work life programmes leads to improved productivity (Ulshafer et al, 2005), improved corporate image (such as Holtermann, 1995; Employers & Work-Life Balance, 2005), and decreased job burnout (Haar & Roche, 2010). In addition, it leads to enhanced quality service, enhanced employee capability, less absence, lower turnover, employee flexibility, skills to succeed in rapidly changing markets (Maxwell & McDougall, 2004). Similarly, increased organizational commitment, increased levels of organizational citizenship behaviours (Baral & Bhargava, 2011) and better levels of participation (Haar & Roche, 2005) are also realised.

Previous research on the role of supervisors in the realization of work life balance among employees found that work-life balance programs allow supervisors the option to help staff and therefore makes the management role less difficult (Maxwell & McDougall, 2004). Employees on the other hand will have an improvement in interpersonal relations by liking for others more and also being more willing to interact. Converse and even offer help (Rothbard, 2001). The balance will also lead to more enthusiasm in work tasks (Cinamon & Rich, 2010). employees will also have minimal role conflict, increased quality time with family, and better control over their social lives (Maxwell & McDougall, 2004) and work (Baral & Bhargava, 2010), and better physical and mental well-being (Cinamon & Rich, 2010).

A Supportive work-family culture increases the sense of self-acceptance among workers (ibid). Work-life balance attainment also leads to increased confidence in work performance. Involvement in multiple individual roles will be a disadvantage to both the individual and the organization (Ruderman et al, 2002). Failure to realize the said balance in return leads to diminished organizational commitment, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and increased stress and turnover intentions (Major & Germano, 2006). While striving to achieve work and life balance it is possible hindrances may be realized so that instead of anticipated positive outcomes being realized, they will be negative. Previous research has it that work interference with family is common than family interference with work. (Major & Germano, 2006). Other factors affecting the perceived outcome include demographic factors (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Md-Sidin, et al., 2010; Kang, 2010) and remuneration (Meyer et al, 2004).

The role of faculty members in higher education is multifaceted (Ssebuwufu, 1994). They have organisational expectations like teaching, supervision, research and administrative work. Personal outcomes like advancement in their careers, publishing books and articles in journals, service to the community and membership in professional bodies are indicators of their performance (Kenyatta university Performance contract, 2012/2013). As has been noted, lectures in Kenyan public universities enjoy relatively low workload, and a break from teaching duties when universities are closed (during the third semester).

In addition, Organizational Work life programmes such as flexi-time, telecommuting and job sharing, leave with pay, scholarships, takeout dinners; and Culture-change strategies like training (UON staff handbook, 2006) have been put in place to enhance their realization of work life balance. This in essence means they have adequate time for work and personal life which should not interfere with their work outcomes. However, job performance of lecturers continues to fall below the expected levels.

A research conducted by Bigambo (2004) on the output of University Lecturers in Kenya found out that the performance of lecturers in Kenyan Public Universities was below expectations and set standards. It is notable that the manner in which the provision of work-life practices affects both employee behaviour and organizational performance remain unclear and under-researched (Allen, 2001; Schutte & Eaton, 2003). Majority of studies investigating the outcomes of work-life practices do not measure the presumed work-life conflict. (Eby et al, 2005). A research on the impact of work life practices on employee performance in the retail industry suggests that

work-life balance practices do not necessarily influence levels of employee work-life conflict, but instead improve organizational performance via other routes, such as reduced overheads in the case of employees working from home (Allen, 2001). Similarly in a study that sought to establish the link between work-life balance practices and organizational performance among institutions of higher learning in Malaysia, found that work life balance practices can influence performance through number of additional like enhanced social exchange processes, increased cost savings, improved productivity and reduced turnover (Beauregard & Henry, 2009). The availability of work-life practices has also been found to lead increased affective commitment and decreased turnover intentions (Wood & de Menezes, 2011).

However, the influence of work-life practices on organizational effectiveness may be compromised by practices that fail to achieve their intended aims. For example, if employees fail to take advantage of them (Wigfield, & Dennett, 2002). Research has shown that some employees fail to take advantage of the programmes for fear of being viewed as less committed workers (Hewlett, 2007; Thompson, 2008), while others may engage in activities that do not make them realize the balance like taking up additional jobs when away from work (Meyer et al. 2004; Baryamureeba, 2013).

2.5 Review of Empirical Literature

Wilk (2013) in a study that explored Work-life balance among administrators in an academy of higher learning assessed the work-life balance experiences and how those experiences varied based on workplace norms and subcultures. The study employed a qualitative methodology. The study found that work-life balance was problematic for administrators and that workplace norms influence the

administrators' experiences of balance. In the absence of formal work-life policies, work-life balance for administrators was supervisor-driven. It was also noted that administrators who worked in different divisions and in different areas within those divisions had varied work-life experiences. The study recommended the use of work-life balance policies to enhance Work life balance.

In his study on Employees Perceptions of Work-life programmes. Simard (2011) explored employees' use of tactics to manage their work and life stress and in particular the employees' use of resources and social support as well as their perceptions of flexibility. Narrative inquiry was used and qualitative interviews were conducted. The study found that employees seek flexibility, support and understanding from their supervisor. Simard recommended that supervision should play a key role in implementing work-life balance programmes. Similarly, Thomas and Ganster (1995) explored the impact of family-supportive work variables on a measure of work-family conflict. They found that along with flexible scheduling, supportive supervisors had direct positive effects on employee perceptions of control and subsequently lower levels of work-family conflict.

Study by Cegarra-Leiva, et al. (2012) sought to understand the link between work life balance practices and organisational outcomes. An empirical study was performed with a sample of 229 SMEs. The findings show that a Work life supportive culture mediates the effect of the availability of Work life practices on organisational performance. It was concluded that the availability of Work life initiatives in organizations generates not only positive outcomes for employees (e.g. reduction of inter-role conflict, higher satisfaction, etc.), but also increases the

organizational results for employers. The study recommended that organisations interested in increasing organizational outcomes should introduce WLB practices. Moreover, practitioners should enhance an organizational culture positive towards employees' balance, communicating their support towards Work life initiatives. A study on developed countries by Wright and MacMahan, (2010); Kuvaas and Dysvik, (2010); as well as studies carried out in Kenya by Shitsama, (2011) reveal that HR practices have a positive and statistically significant relationship with performance. Furthermore, there is a positive significant association between HR practices, and operational performance.

A study that sought to determine how employees spend their non-work time was done by Bradley et al. (2008) Interviews were conducted in a construction project where the roster was changed from a six to a five-day week. Interviews over time were conducted with fourteen staff, starting when the change was about to occur, then at monthly intervals for the following 3 months. The findings indicated that staff were likely to spend their 'extra' free time relaxing, and with friends and family, but reported less actual time learning new skills.

A study on the use of flexi time as a Work-life balance policy by Downes (2011) in South Africa found that Organisation's flexible work schedules improved employees work life balance. In this study, a qualitative research design with an exploratory approach was used to explore and describe employees' perceptions regarding the implementation of flexi time. The study concluded that organization's management should be made more aware of the individual as well as organizational benefits,

challenges and consequences of flexi time. It recommended that Efforts should be made to accommodate employee preferences regarding their use of flexi time.

2.6 Conceptual Framework

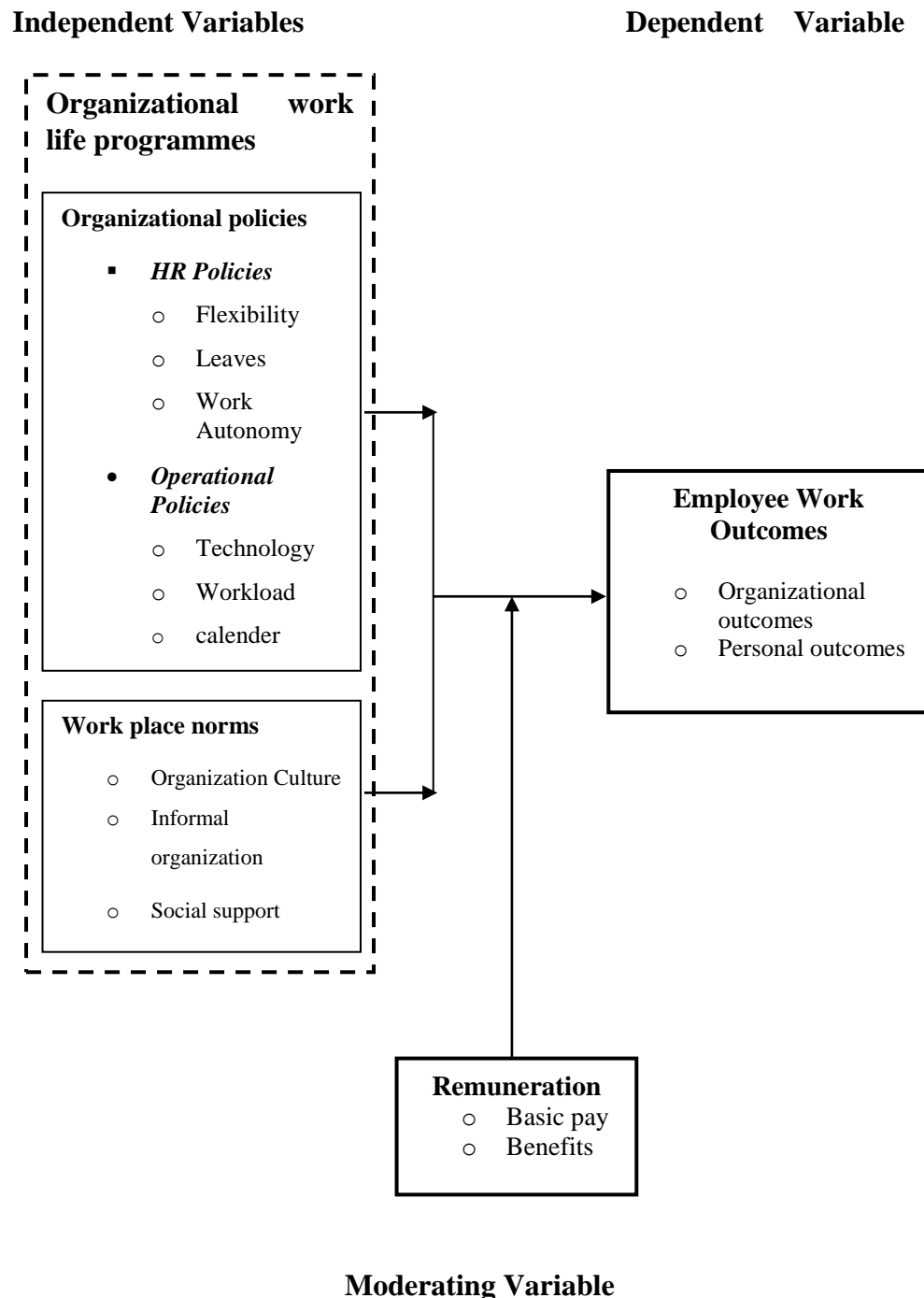


Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework

Wekesa and Nyaroo (2013) in their study carried out among public secondary school teachers in Eldoret municipality; Uasin Gishu County found that poor remuneration has often been given as a cause of dissatisfaction and low performance among teachers thus leading to numerous teacher strikes in Kenya. The problem of inadequate compensation makes the teachers dissatisfied, thus leaving the profession to other well or better paying jobs or even taking up other work assignments that seek to supplement their income.

A similar study conducted on Jimma University academic staff, India, sought to investigate the role of remuneration toward employee retention. The study specifically aimed at examining if there was a relationship between remuneration and retention. It was found that in order to motivate and thereby retain effective and committed staff members, the university must offer competitive level of compensation and must recognize the lecturers' achievements (Negash et al 2014).

2.6.1 Independent Variables: Organisational Work Life Programmes

These are family-friendly policies that seek to enhance employees' realization of the balance between work and social life in order to enhance Employee Work Outcomes. These include, adopting Organisational policies that this study categorizes as Human Resource (HR) Policies and Operational Policies. HR policies aim at enabling employees realize the balance for example, Work flexibility where Organizations give employees an opportunity to determine their work schedules as an incentive of employment (Kara et al, 2002) for example flextime, voluntary shifts to part-time work, job sharing, work-at-home options, and leave options (Johnson, 2004). Operational policies on the other hand relate to factors at work and the performance

standards provided and expected by the organization (Jennings & McDougald, 2007), for example length of work day, workload, work autonomy (Haworth & Lewis, 2005) and also the technology an organization adopts (Maxwell & McDougall, 2004). Work Place norms are collectively agreed-upon behaviours that prescribe the ways in which members of an organization should approach their work and interact with one another (Hammer et al, 2004) this are shaped by the nature of Social Support systems and the Organization's culture (Martel, 2002).

2.6.2 Moderating Variable: Remuneration

Remuneration is the reward or compensation given to the employees for work done (Herzberg et al 2011). Reasonable remuneration increases motivation and hence work performance (Management Study Guide, 2010). Poor remuneration will therefore lead to low work commitment, low motivation and even seeking alternative pay (Herzberg et al 2011). Due to the perception that lecturers in Kenyan Public Universities and the East African region generally are considered to be poorly paid (Waswa & Katana, 2008; KIPPRA, 2012), it is likely that instead of faculty members taking advantage of Organisational work life programmes to enhance their social life, they instead seek to earn more by taking up extra jobs (Baryamureeba, 2013). This therefore denies them work life balance, making them experience role conflict and therefore compromising on their organisational outcomes. Remuneration therefore interferes with the intended effect of Organisational work life programmes.

2.6.3 Dependent Variable: Employee Work Outcomes

These are the results that employees realize at work. The outcomes are both personal and organizational in nature, and may be enhanced by the provision of organisational

work life programmes. With some employees' productivity will increase, with others the anticipated increase will not be realized (Allen, 2001). The effective utilization of organisational work life programmes leads to enthusiasm in work tasks (Cinamon & Rich, 2010). However, other factors such as supervision, demographic factors and remuneration have been found to affect the outcomes despite the provision of organisational work life programmes (Hewlett, 2007; Thompson, 2008; Bianchi et al, 2000).

2.7 Research Gap

This study sought to assess the relationship between organisational work life programmes and organizational outcomes among lecturers in Kenyan public universities. Empirical reviews show that studies on work life balance on higher education have been done, though not much seems to have been done on Remuneration as a moderator of work life balance. A study on Work-life balance on an academy of higher learning (Wilk, 2013) assessed the work-life balance experiences and how those experiences varied based on workplace norms and subcultures, while Simard (2011) explored employees' use of 'other' tactics to manage their work and life balance in the absence of comprehensive Work life programmes.

A Cegarra-Leiva, et al, (2012) sought to understand the link between work life balance practices and organisational outcomes which was seen to have favorable outcomes. Bradley et al (2008) sought to determine how employees spend their non-work time which showed that they were likely to spend their 'extra' free time relaxing, and with friends and family, but reported less actual time learning new

skills, while A study on the use of flexitime as a Work-life balance policy by Downes (2011) was done in South Africa.

Not much seems to have been done to determine the moderating effect of remuneration on the relationship between Organizational work life Programmes and Employee Work Outcomes among lecturers in Public Universities in Kenya. This study therefore sought to assess the link between Organizational work life programmes and Employee work outcomes among lecturers in Public Universities in Kenya.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research methodology used in the thesis. It describes the Philosophy used and the subsequent choice of research design. It also covers the target population, the sampling techniques and sample size and how it was determined. The chapter also gives a description of the data collection methods and instruments showing their reliability and validity. Finally, the chapter discusses how data was analyzed.

3.2 Research Philosophy

A research philosophy can be said to be the development of the research background, knowledge and its nature (Saunders & Thornhill, 2007). It can also be defined with the help of a research paradigm. Cohen et al, (2000), defines research paradigm as the broad framework, which comprises perception, beliefs and understanding of several theories and practices that are used to conduct a research. It is examined in two ways, namely, ontology and epistemology.

Ontology is the pre- methodological question that asks how we perceive the social world (Johnson, 1997). Epistemology issue concerns how you know what you know and the methods you choose to use in order to test the validity of Knowledge (Kvale, 1989; Salner, 1989). There are three epistemology positions, that is, realism, interpretivism and positivism. Realism purports to provide an account of scientific practice, and interpretivism requires the social scientist to grasp the subjective

meaning of social action (Denzin, 2001), while A positivist approach aims at discovering universal laws that can be used to predict human activity (Cavana et al, 2001).

This study therefore, was based on the positivist view that studies on human behaviour should be conducted in the same manner as studies in natural sciences. A positivist research paradigm as recommended by Creswell (2008) was appropriate for this research as there was empirical verification of the findings obtained. The study sought to determine how work life programmes in organisations influence people's behaviour in a certain way. The researcher therefore presented figures in an effort to explain which mechanisms affect employee performance. The purpose was to gather information, opinions, and feelings of how Organizational policies, Work place norms, and Remuneration influence the participant's performance. A similar study on Work life Initiatives and performance of employees of commercial banks in Kenya (Muli, 2014) and also a study on an investigation into work-life balance and burnout in a software company in Ireland (Kellman, 2015) also made use of the positivist philosophy.

3.3 Research Design

According to Lavrakas (2008), a research design is a general plan or strategy for conducting a research study in order to examine specific testable research questions which the researcher has interest in. The Correlation survey design was therefore used in this study. The correlational design is useful when the objective is to find out the relationships between the Independent and Dependent variables, without seeking to prove causation (Mugenda, 2008; Robson, 2002). A study on Work-family

enrichment as a mediator between organizational interventions for work-life balance and job outcomes, by Baral, & Bhargava (2010) used Correlational survey design. Similarly, O'Neal (2012) also used the Correlational design in a study that sought to determine the effects of work schedule flexibility on job satisfaction of telephone advice nurses in the South Eastern United.

The study involved collecting data from lecturers in public universities. Therefore, the survey technique was considered the most suitable here. The advantages of a survey approach to this study are that a great deal of information can be obtained from a large population. This is relevant to this study since the population of 6299 lecturers as used in this study is relatively high. Surveys are also relatively economical and their accuracy is high especially when good sampling procedures are followed; and it is possible to check the validity of survey data using various statistical methods (Alavi and Carlson, 1992). Zhang (2012) in his research on the relationship between work-life balance and productivity among university lecturers in Shanxi province, China used the Correlation design and a survey technique. In that study, 505 questionnaires were distributed to lecturers in four universities in Shanxi province. Similarly, Positivists such as Hirschheim, (1985); Alavi and Carlson, (1992) hold that the validity of assertions of a quantitative study is enhanced through a survey approach. Another study by Khairunneezam (2011) examined the relationship between perceived work life balance satisfaction of academics in Malaysian public higher education institutions and their intentions to leave their organizations also used the survey design. The study used a total of 1078 academics from three public universities in Malaysia.

3.4 Research Area and Population

This study was carried out in seven Public universities in Kenya, East Africa. The public Universities from which the population of lecturers was derived have their presence in most of the country since all of them have campuses and constituent colleges in the major towns in Kenya. Population of the study here refers to all those elements that meet the characteristics for inclusion in a study (Burns & Grove, 2003). The target population refers to all members of a real or hypothetical set of people, events or objects from which a researcher wishes to generalize the results of their research. (Gall et al, 2007). Newing et al, (2011) have also described a population as the set of sampling units or cases that the researcher is interested in.

The Target population was 8221 lecturers from the twenty-two public universities accredited by the Commission of University Education in Kenya in June 2013. The accessible population was 6299 full time lecturers drawn from seven (7) public universities in Kenya that are more than six years old since 2013, as indicated in Table 3.1. This is because those universities have established human resource and organizational policies and work norms which are useful in this research.

The targeted respondents comprised of Lecturers holding managerial positions (Deans and departmental Chairmen) as well as full time lecturers. This is because the full time lecturers are fully exposed to the Work life programmes in their respective Universities while those holding managerial positions are able to determine employee work outcomes due to their supervisory nature of the job, and also they have a teaching load, which gives them the full faculty experience.

Table 3.1: Population

No	University	Year each attained University status	Total Population
1	University of Nairobi	1970	2052
2	Moi University	1984	934
3	Kenyatta University	1985	1953
4	Egerton University	1988	514
5	Maseno University	1991	157
6	Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT)	1994	497
7	Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology (MMUST)	2009	192
TOTAL POPULATION			6299

Source: www.uonbi.ac.ke, www.mu.ac.ke, www.ku.ac.ke, www.egerton.ac.ke,
www.maseno.ac.ke, www.jkuat.ac.ke, www.mmust.ac.ke, (2015)

3.5 Sample and Sampling Design

The study used the multi-stage sampling procedure. Kothari (2003) asserts that multi-stage sampling increases the logistical ease and reduces the financial costs associated with conducting large-scale surveys. From a population of 8221 lecturers from the twenty two public universities accredited by the Commission of university education in Kenya in June 2013, 6299 full time lecturers drawn from seven (7) public universities in Kenya that are more than six years old (from 2013), were chosen. Then, all the 391 lecturers from the Business Schools of the seven public universities was chosen as the sample as shown in Table 3.2.

The choice of Business Schools was because they have been greatly affected by market forces, which can be attributed to the popularity of business courses in Kenya (Mutunga, 2010). Ngang'a (2014) found that graduates in Business courses have

been increasing tremendously in Kenya as opposed to other courses since 2003 as shown in Appendix B (1).

Table 3.2: Sample Size

No	University	Deans D/Chair	Lecturers	Lecturer population in Business Schools
1	University of Nairobi	7	97	114
2	Moi University	6	69	75
3	Kenyatta University	4	75	79
4	Egerton University	5	30	35
5	Maseno University	4	19	23
6	JKUAT	3	36	39
7	MMUST	3	23	26
	TOTAL SAMPLE	26	365	391

Source: www.uonbi.ac.ke, www.mu.ac.ke, www.ku.ac.ke, www.egerton.ac.ke, www.maseno.ac.ke, www.jkuat.ac.ke, www.mmust.ac.ke, (2015)

The multistage sampling technique has been used in similar researches like Madu & Pam (2011) in the study Balancing Work and life in Cameroonian Universities: The Example of Federal University of Technology Minna et al, (2012) Globalization and the Context of Future Higher Education in Nigeria, which all constituted a large population.

3.6 Data Collection

3.6.1 Data sources

Secondary data was obtained from scholarly books, publications in management journals on work life issues, and biographies that touch on the area of study. HR manuals, policies and procedures and departmental reports provided requisite information on the organizational practices and employee outcomes realized. This is because such documents are updated regularly and are therefore likely to provide

recent and accurate information. It is of great importance to use secondary data since. It is economical, by saving on time and expenses. It also helps to make primary data collection more specific since with the help of secondary data, one is able to make out what are the gaps and deficiencies and what additional information needs to be collected. Secondary data also helps to improve the understanding of the problem and it provides a basis for comparison for the data that is collected by the researcher (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

Primary data was collected by the use of the questionnaire. This information was required to realize the objectives of the study. Primary data is beneficial to the researcher since he/she can focus on both qualitative and quantitative issues, and it addresses specific research issues as the researcher controls the search design to fit their needs (Bryman & Bell, 2007). It also enables the researcher to have a higher control over how the information is collected. Taking this into account, the researcher can decide on such requirements as size of project, time frame and goal (Monette et al, 2005).

3.6.2 Data Collection Tools

This study used the questionnaire for data collection. The questionnaire is appropriate for descriptive research since each respondent is asked to respond to the same set of questions (Saunders et al, 2009) thereby providing an efficient way of getting responses from a large sample prior to quantitative analysis. Kothari (2009) has defined the questionnaire as a document that consists of a number of questions printed or typed in a definite order on a form or set of forms. Questionnaires have advantages since they are cheap to use even when the population is large and is

widely spread geographically while large samples can be made use of and thus the results can be made more dependable and reliable (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003) and (Kothari,2009). They also concur that the questionnaires have demerits due to low rate of return of the duly filled in questionnaires, bias due to no-response is often indeterminate, it can be used only when respondents are educated and cooperating, the control over questionnaire may be lost once it is sent, there is inbuilt inflexibility because of the difficulty of amending the approach once questionnaires have been dispatched, there is also the possibility of ambiguous replies or omission of replies altogether to certain questions, that is, the interpretation of omissions is difficult, it is difficult to know whether willing respondents are truly representative and this method is likely to be very slow.

The questionnaires comprised of open and closed ended questions as well as Likert scales. Likert Scales communicate interval properties to respondents, and therefore produces data that can be related to an interval scale. The Likert Scale communicates interval properties to respondents, and therefore produces data that can be related to an interval scale (Geoff, 2010). Respondents were required to indicate a degree of agreement or disagreement within a series of statements about the stimulus objects. With a Likert scale generally the level of agreement or disagreement is measured. It is considered symmetric or "balanced" because there are equal numbers of positive and negative positions (John, 2008).http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Likert_scale - cite_note-6 This is recommended because the data collection tool will help the respondents to respond more easily, accumulate and summarize responses more efficiently.

3.6.3 Data Collection Technique

The questionnaires were self-administered. Self-administered questionnaires, unlike personal interviews, typically are cheaper to use (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). 391 questionnaires were therefore administered, one each to every full time lecturer working Public Universities who were selected in the sample. To enhance confidentiality and due to the sensitivity of the information required, the questionnaires were such that it was not a must for the respondents to reveal neither their names nor their universities.

The questionnaires were categorized into sections; General information, and according to the variables, that is Organisational work life programmes, Remuneration and Employee work outcomes, in order to address the objectives of the study.

3.7 Reliability and Validity

Reliability refers to consistency of responses, that is, the degree to which an instrument measures in the same way each time under the same conditions. Zikmund (2003) defined reliability as the degree to which measures are free from error and therefore yield consistent results. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used to determine reliability. Cronbach's alpha measures how well a set of items (or variables) measures a single uni dimensional latent construct (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). It is a coefficient of reliability or consistency (Santos, & Reynolds, 1999). A Cronbach's alpha value above 0.75 shows that the items on each of the variables in the questionnaire are reliable for measurement (Mandrish & Schaffer, 2005).

Validity on the other hand is the ability of the research instruments to measure what the researcher intends to measure (Saunders et al, 2009). In order to check face and content validity, a pilot test was therefore carried out with ten selected respondents who were selected from the target population. The ten respondents did not form part of the final sample size. Expert opinion was also considered. Factor analysis was used to test construct validity. With factor analysis, a large number of different mathematical procedures are used to analyse the interrelationships among a set of variables and for explaining these interrelationships in terms of a reduced number of variables, called factors (Brown, 2012).

Mabert et al (2003) asserts that factor loading values that are greater than 0.4 should be accepted and values below 0.4 should lead to collection of more data. Values between 0.7 and 0.8 are good, values between 0.8 and 0.9 are great, and values above 0.9 are superb. They recommend 0.4 as minimum acceptable values (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2010). The higher the absolute value of the loading, the more the factor contributes to the variable. The validity results are presented in Appendix A (iii to iv). The results show the number of factors retained and dropped in each of the variables.

3.8 Rating, Operationalization and Measurement of Variables

3.8.1 Rating

A five point Likert scale was used in the study. It communicates interval properties to respondents, and therefore produces data that can be related to an interval scale (Geoff, 2010). Respondents were required to indicate a degree of agreement or disagreement within a series of statements about the stimulus objects. The level of

agreement or disagreement is measured. It is considered symmetric or "balanced" because there are equal numbers of positive and negative positions (John, 2008).http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Likert_scale - cite_note-6

In this study, five ordered response levels were used as such: '5': 'strongly disagree'; '4': 'disagree'; '3': 'neutral'; '2': 'agree'; and '1': 'strongly agree'. The five point Likert scale has the advantages that it presents symmetry of categories about a midpoint with clearly defined linguistic qualifiers. In such symmetric scaling, equidistant attributes will typically be more clearly observed or, at least, inferred (Carifio & Perla, 2007), the questions are usually easy to understand and therefore may lead to consistent answers, and it offers a simple way of gauging opinions.

However, since the options given are few (only five) the respondents may not fully agree to, and there is a likelihood of generating responses of the 'neutral option' as the easiest way to take when the respondent is not sure. A recent study on the effect of work life initiatives on employee's performance in the banking sector in Nairobi County (Vika, 2014) made use of a five level interval Likert scale.

3.8.2 Operationalization and Measurement of Variables

The study variables were given operational meaning as given in Table 3.4.

Table 3.3: Operationalization of Variables

Sno	Construct	Definition	Indicators	Measure	Rating
1.	Dependent Variable (Employee work outcomes)				
	<i>Organisational work outcomes</i>	Results expected of the lecturers by the organization, and are meant to enable the university realise its goals.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of students supervised per year • Number of Units taught, examined per year • Marked and submitted marks on time. • Number of conferences/workshops attended per year. • Number of departmental meetings attended per year. • Number of academic publications on refereed journals per year • Number of grant proposals written that attracted University funding per year. • Number of presentations made in conferences • membership to professional bodies • Number of Seminars and courses attended per year • Instances of updating personal profile on university website annually. • Service to university eg. Boards, committees • Instances involved in community service per year as proven from appointment letters 	Direct measure	Five point Likert scale

<i>Personal outcomes</i>	<i>work</i>	Results that the lecturers should derive from the work experience those are beneficial to the individual lecturer and are over and above organizational expectations.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number academic publications per year • instances involved in community service per year as proven from appointment letters • Number of presentations made in conferences • Number of membership to professional bodies • Number of seminars and courses attended per year 	Direct Measure	Five point Likert
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2. Independent Variables (Organizational work life programmes)					
<i>-Hr policies</i>		Guidelines affecting the employment relationship that seeks to enhance the lecturers' balance of work and social life.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of Human Resource Policies on offer and available to employees. 	Direct measure	Five point Likert
<i>-Operational policies</i>		Guidelines related to the running of the organization that seek to enhance the lecturers' balance of work and social life.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of Operational Policies on offer and available to employees. 	Direct measure	Five point Likert
<i>-Work norms</i>	<i>place</i>	Implied ways of doing things which arise from the informal organization that members of the organization are in agreement of.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Instances of work place norms available to employees. For example Workplace supportiveness, informal organization. 	Direct measure	Five point Likert
3. Moderating variable (Remuneration)					
		Payment in monetary terms given to lecturers by their employer for the execution of the duties and responsibilities they have been assigned	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Amount in Kenya shillings • Incentives/allowances provided 	Direct measure scale	Five point Likert

3.9 Empirical Model

Multiple linear regressions were used to test the statistical significance of the relationship involving the three key variables organizational policies, work place norms, and remuneration and employee work outcome. Multiple regression models involved analyzing moderation in piecemeal fashion. Hierarchical regressions were used to test the statistical significance of the relationship between organisational work life programmes and employee work outcomes of lectures in public universities in Kenya, and also establish the moderating effect of remuneration on the relationship between organisational work life programmes and employee work outcomes.

Hierarchical regression is a sequential process involving the entry of predictor variables into the analysis in steps (Lewis, 2007). It is useful for evaluating the contributions of predictors above and beyond previously entered predictors, as a means of statistical control, and for examining incremental validity. This “control” is achieved by calculating the change in the adjusted R^2 at each step of the analysis, thus accounting for the increment in variance after each variable (or group of variables) is entered into the regression model (Mostafa, 2006).

Hierarchical regression is an appropriate tool for analysis when variance on a criterion variable is being explained by predictor variables that are correlated with each other (Lewis, 2007). Since correlated variables are commonly seen in social sciences research and are especially prevalent in educational research, this makes hierarchical regression quite useful. Hierarchical regression is a popular method used to analyze the effect of a predictor variable after controlling for other variables.

The moderating effects of the relationships were tested in steps using the following regression equations:

Step 1: Regressing the dependent variable on the one independent variable (OP)

$$EWO = \beta_0 + \beta_1 OP + \epsilon \dots \dots \dots \text{equation 1}$$

Step 2: Regressing the dependent variable on the other independent variable (WPN)

$$EWO = \beta_0 + \beta_1 WPN + \epsilon \dots \dots \dots \text{equation 2}$$

Step 3: Regressing the dependent variable on both the independent variables

$$EWO = \beta_0 + \beta_1 OP + \beta_2 WPN + \epsilon \dots \dots \dots \text{equation 3}$$

Step 4: To facilitate the application of the joint effect regression model, weighted averages of the two independent variables will be computed using the following equation:

$$OWLP = \frac{\sum (W1 OP + W2 WPN)}{2} \dots \dots \dots \text{equation 4}$$

Step 5: Regressing the dependent variable on the independent variable (Composite index) and the moderator

$$EWO = \beta_0 + \beta_1 OWLP + \beta_2 OWLP \times R + \beta_3 WPN + \beta_4 WPN \times R + \epsilon \dots \dots \dots \text{equation 5}$$

Step 6: giving the total effect (of the moderator) on the dependent variable by interacting the moderating variable and the independent variable. Thus,

$$EWO = \beta_0 + \beta_4 OWLP + \beta_5 OWLP \times R + \epsilon \dots \dots \dots \text{equation 6}$$

Where:

$$EWO = \text{Employee work outcomes}$$

OP	=	Organizational policies
WPN	=	Work place norms
$OWLP$	=	Composite index of organizational policies and work place norms
$OWLP * R$	=	Organizational work life programme x Remuneration
R	=	Remuneration
$W_1, W_2,$	=	Relative weight given to each component in a particular variable
$/$	=	Division
β_0	=	constant
$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_4, \beta_5$	=	the coefficients representing the various independent variables
ε	=	Error term

3.10 Data Analysis

The questionnaires were physically checked and coded once they were received back. Quantitative data was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics was used to summarize data on the demographic characteristics and obtain percentages, mean and standard deviation on the level of agreement or disagreement to the research questions (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). Inferential statistics were carried out using correlation analysis and multiple regression models as suggested by Muthen and Muthen, (2007). Correlation analysis was carried out in order to establish the relationship between the independent variables; organizational policies and work place norms and the dependent variable employee work outcomes.

A correlation measures the strength of association between two variables (Cohen et al, 2003).

Hierarchical regressions were used to test the relationship between organisational work life programmes and employee work outcome of lectures in public universities in Kenya, and the moderating effect of remuneration on that relationship. This was guided by step by step multiple regression models that involved analyzing moderation in piecemeal fashion (Jimerson et al, 2000). Hierarchical regression is a sequential process involving the entry of predictor variables into the analysis in steps. (Gelman, 2006 & Pallant, 2011). This involved calculating the change in the adjusted R^2 at each step of the analysis, thus accounting for the increment in variance after each variable (Jimerson et al, 2000). Linear multiple regressions have also been used on other studies on work life programmes. For example, a study on the impact of Work life balance HR practices on Psychological contract fulfillment and violation in a health care organization by Reumkens (2011) in the Netherlands.

The relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variable should satisfy the assumption of normality, linearity, homogeneity of variance (heteroskedasticity) and multicollinearity (Greene, 2002). In order to meet the assumption of linearity, the linear relationship of the independent variables on the dependent variables was tested using the correlation coefficient as suggested by Greene (2002) and Cohen, et al (2003). To determine whether multi-collinearity was a problem, the data was duly tested for multi-collinearity by using Pearson's correlation and conditional index. To establish normality, the researcher used the rule

of thumb that a variable is reasonably close to normal if its skewness and kurtosis have values between -1.0 and + 1.0 as recommended by (Myoung, 2008). This was used to check whether the residuals are normally distributed as predicted by the dependent variable scores. The results were analysed and compared with the results of other studies in the literature review. Inferences were made from the research questions and conclusions and recommendations were made.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS/ RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the data analysis results and key research findings for each specific objective. The main aim of this study was to determine the link between Organizational work life programmes, Remuneration and Employee work outcomes among lecturers in Public Universities in Kenya. The findings on descriptive statistics are presented in percentages while regression analysis was employed for inferential statistics.

4.2 Response rate

The target population of this study comprised of 6299 full time lecturers drawn from the seven Public Universities in Kenya that are more than five years old. A sample of 26 Deans/Departmental Chairs and 365 lectures was chosen. A total of 391 self-administered questionnaires were therefore sent out, out of which 279 for lecturers and 22 deans/Departmental heads were returned. However, the questionnaires that were accepted as correctly filled were 276 for Lecturers and for 19 Deans/Departmental heads. This was a response rate of 75.61% and 73.09% as depicted in Table 4.1.

Such a response rate can be considered very good as per Mangione's (1995) response rate continuum that grades response rates as: over 85% excellent, 70-85% very good and 60-70% as acceptable while below 50% is unacceptable. Other studies on work life balance that have used over 60% response rates include Muli (2014), and Zhang (2012).

Table 4. 1: Response rate

	Academic Staff		Deans/Chairmen	
	Sample size	Percentage	Sample size	Percentage
Response	276	75.61%	19	73.07%
Non response	89	24.39%	7	26.93%
Total	365	100%	26	100%

4.3 Reliability and Validity Test Results

The reliability test showed that all the independent variables had Cronbach's alpha values of above 0.8 as captured in appendix A (i) and Table 4.2. Results indicated that remuneration attracted a coefficient of 0.840, organizational work outcomes had a coefficient of 0.905, personal work outcomes attracted a coefficient of 0.900, organizational policies had 0.945 and work place norms had a coefficient of 0.827. A Cronbach's alpha value above 0.8 shows that all the items on each of the variables in the questionnaire were found to be reliable for measurement because the reliability coefficient was found to be above the recommended threshold of 0.7 (Sekaran, 2003).

Table 4. 2: Reliability Tests

Variable	No of items	Cronbach's Alpha	Question(s)
Remuneration	7	0.840	14
Organizational Work Outcomes	11	0.905	16
Personal Work Outcomes	7	0.900	17
Organizational Policies	22	0.945	8, 9
Work Place Norms	11	0.827	10

On content validity, the experts recommended a modification by using positive questions unlike using reverse questions which can confuse the respondents. In order to improve face validity, appropriate instructions were added to the questionnaire.

Factor analysis was used to test construct validity. Factor analysis was used to establish the appropriateness of the questionnaire constructs. Specifically factor loadings were used to establish the weights of the various statements on extracted factors. All statements whose factors loading were less than 0.5 were dropped from further analysis. This was arrived at after conducting a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett test of sphericity to assess the appropriateness of using factor analysis. KMO is a measure to quantify the degree of correlations among the variables (Parinet et al, 2004). The Bartlett test of sphericity provides the statistical probability that the correlation matrix has significant correlations among at least some of the variables (Abdullah, 2006). After conducting these tests, the result of KMO test was 0.688 and the significance level for Bartlett test was $p < .001$ as shown in appendix A(ii) Both values showed a high degree of correlations among the independent variables. This index ranges from 0 to 1, and the closer the value to 1, the more significant the correlations among the variables (Abdullah, 2006).

Factor analysis was conducted using Principal Components method. The extraction of the factors followed the Kaiser criterion where an Eigen value of 1 or more indicates a unique factor. The factor loadings were captured in appendices A(iii) to A(v). In Organizational work outcomes, four (4) statements whose factor loading were less than 0.5 were eliminated and 11 factors retained for further analysis as

shown in Appendix A (iii) while in Personal work outcomes the factor loadings of the all the seven items ranged from 0.546 to 0.881 suggesting high convergent validity, hence, the study employed all the seven items for Personal outcomes as shown in Appendix A (iv). With Organizational policies, the factor loading of the twenty two items ranged from 0.511 to 0.850 also suggesting high convergent validity as illustrated in Appendix A (v). As for Work Place Norms, all factor loading of the 11 statements was more than 0.5 as captured in Appendix A (vi).

4.4 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

This section analyses the demographic data and other key characteristics of the respondents who were lecturers and Deans/Chairmen of departments. Table 4.3 shows the frequency distribution and percentages of the demographic characteristics of the respondents. Majority of the Lecturers (57.6%) and Deans/Chairmen (68.4%) were male while 42.4% and 34.6% were female respectively. This is indicative of a balance between the two genders hence likely of obtaining balanced findings.

Majority, (48.9% for Lecturers and 52.6% for Deans/Chairmen) were between the ages brackets of 41-50. This implies that the lecturers involved in the study were of an active age. On work experience, majority of the academic staff had worked for (4-6 years) while Deans/Chairmen had worked for over 7 years, 70.7% were on permanent and pensionable terms. This can be considered as adequate time and terms of service for the lecturers to have been familiar with various organizational policies and practices of concern in this study.

Table 4.3: Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Characteristics	Category	Lecturers		Deans/Chairmen	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	159	57.6	13	68.4
	Female	117	42.4	6	31.6
	Total	276	100.0	19	100.0
Age Bracket	31-40	90	32.6	5	26.3
	41-50	135	48.9	10	52.6
	Above 50	51	18.5	4	21.1
	Total	276	100.0	19	100.0
Work Experience	Up to 3 years	35	12.7	3	15.8
	4 - 6 years	121	43.8	4	21.1
	7 years and above	120	43.5	12	63.2
	Total	276	100.0	19	100.0
Terms of Service	Contract	81	29.3		
	Permanent and pensionable	195	70.7		
Total		276	100.0		

4.5 Organizational Work Life Programmes

The study sought to establish the availability of work life programmes in public universities in Kenya. The respondents were expected to indicate, by way of ticking, the organizational work life programmes on offer in their respective universities from a list provided. The results of the analysis are shown in Table 4.4. It was noted that, a number of organizational work life programmes were available, with the highest percentage indicating the leave option (97%) while technology support was least available with a percentage of 69%, which is still very high.

Table 4.4: Organizational Work Life Programmes in Public Universities

Program	Lecturers		Deans/Chairmen	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Leave option	275	99.6%	19	100%
Flexibility in reporting	253	91.7%	17	89.47%
Technology support	191	69.2%	11	57.89%
Favorable official work load	259	93.8%	17	89.47%
Favorable academic calendar	232	84.1%	18	94.74%
Work autonomy	227	82.2%	15	78.95%
Supportive work culture	204	73.9%	17	89.47%
Informal organization	210	76.1%	16	84.21%
Social support	238	86.1%	16	84.21%

From the responses, it is therefore evident that organizational work life programmes are readily available in the universities for the lecturers from where the samples were picked.

4.5.1 HR Policies, Organizational Work Life programmes and Employee

Work Outcomes

The study sought to determine the HR policies that constituted of organisational work life programmes that were offered by respective universities, and how they affected employee work outcomes. Questions on flexibility, work autonomy and leave options, their availability at work, and how they affected employee work performance were asked. The respondents were to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements. A five point Likert scale was used (strongly agree =5' agree =4' neither agree nor disagree =3, disagree =2 and strongly disagree =1) as presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: HR Policies, Organizational Work Life Programmes and Employee Work Outcomes

Statement	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Mean	Standard Deviation
The University provides lecturers with adequate leave options	5.1	16.3	51.1	27.5	0.0	4.01	.802
It easy for me get an appropriate leave to deal with the issue at hand	1.8	5.4	16.3	40.3	36.2	4.04	.953
The leave options give me enough time for work and my social life	1.8	8.0	23.2	46.7	20.3	3.76	.928
The leave options provided by the University motivate me to undertake my work duties	1.8	6.9	29.7	46.7	14.9	3.66	.878
There is flexibility at my work in terms of reporting, and leaving work	4.3	17.0	47.9	30.8	0.0	4.05	.807
It is acceptable for lecturers to perform some work duties from home	5.1	10.9	27.5	34.4	22.1	3.58	1.101
Flexibility at work gives me enough time for my work and my social life	3.6	12.3	14.1	40.2	29.8	3.80	1.105
Flexibility at work enhances my morale in undertaking my work duties	0.7	24.6	42.8	31.9	0.0	3.94	.940
The nature of my work allows me to work for long periods without direct supervision.	9.1	22.8	47.1	21.0	0.0	4.06	.770
Lecturers determine how to go about most tasks of their work.	0.8	10.1	21.7	28.3	39.1	3.80	.874
Work autonomy enables me cope with both work and social life adequately	10.9	29.3	26.8	33.0	0.0	3.95	1.040
Work autonomy enhances my commitment to my work duties	9.9	28.3	26.8	33.0	2.0	3.82	1.014

The findings indicate that the overall mean on each statement was above 3.5. This was an indication that all the respondents were positive of the availability of HR

policies as work life programmes (highest mean was 4.06 whereas the lowest mean was 3.58). However, the majority (51.1%) were non-committal if the leave options on offer were adequate or not by indicating that they neither agreed nor disagreed. The majority (77%) indicated that the availability of the leave options had a positive effect on work since motivated them to perform their work. However, only a few felt that flexibility (32%) enhanced their morale to work, and only a few felt that work commitment was enhanced by work autonomy (35%). This is indicative that not all the organizational work programmes enhanced work outcomes.

A mean of above 3.5 is a clear indication that the respondents agreed that HR policies were available in their institutions as part of work life programmes. Those who neither agreed nor disagreed on their availability might be due to the manner in which they were administered, such that despite their availability they could not have made use of them as expected. Means greater than 1 and less than 1.5 implied that the HR policies influenced organizational work life programmes to no extent. Means greater than 1.5 and less than 2.5 implied that HR policies influenced organizational work life programmes to a little extent. Means greater than 2.5 and less than 3.5 implied that HR policies influenced organizational work life programmes to a moderate extent. Means greater than 3.5 and less than 4.5 implied that HR policies influenced organizational work life programmes to a greater extent. Means greater than 4.5 implied that HR policies influenced organizational work life programmes to a very great extent.

The standard deviation on the other hand describes the distribution of the response in relation to the mean. It provides an indication of how far the individual responses to

each factor vary from the mean. A standard deviation of near 1 indicates that the responses are moderately distributed, while that near 0 indicates that there is no consensus on the responses obtained.

4.5.3 Operational policies, Organizational Work Life programmes and Employee Work Outcomes

The study also sought to determine the Operational policies that constituted of organisational work life programmes that were available to lecturers and how they related to their work performance. Statements regarding Information technology, work load and academic calendar were asked, where the respondents were expected to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements. A five point Likert was used (strongly agree =5, agree =4, neither agree nor disagree =3, disagree =2 and strongly disagree =1) as presented in Table 4.6.

Means greater than 1 and less than 1.5 implied that the operational policies influenced organizational work life programmes to no extent. Means greater than 1.5 and less than 2.5 implied that operational policies influenced organizational work life programmes to a little extent. Means greater than 2.5 and less than 3.5 implied that operational policies influenced organizational work life programmes to a moderate extent. Means greater than 3.5 and less than 4.5 implied that operational policies influenced organizational work life programmes to a greater extent. Means greater than 4.5 implied that operational policies influenced organizational work life programmes to a very great extent. The standard deviation on the other hand describes the distribution of the response in relation to the mean. It provides an indication of how far the individual responses to each factor vary from the mean. A

standard deviation of near 1 indicates that the responses are moderately distributed, while that near 0 indicates that there is no consensus on the responses obtained.

The majority (62%) indicated that the availability of Information technology had a positive effect on work since motivated them to perform their work. Similarly, (71.7%) agreed that favorable workload enhanced their morale to work, while (75.7%) felt that favourable work calendar gave them satisfaction in their work and therefore would enhance their performance. This is indicative that not all the organizational work programmes enhanced work outcomes.

Table 4.6: Operational Policies, Organizational Work Life Programmes and Employee Work Outcomes

Statement	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Likert mean	Standard Deviation
The use of information technology is allowed in some job tasks in this University.	0.0	0.0	17.7	56.2	26.1	4.01	.802
Information technology facilitates working from locations away from the work station.	5.4	11.6	19.9	28.3	34.8	4.04	.953
Information technology enhances my realization of enough work and social time.	0.0	19.2	12.6	45.7	22.5	3.76	.928
The use of Information technology motivates me in undertaking my work duties	0.0	26.3	11.6	50.4	11.7	3.66	.878
Lecturers in this university have a manageable official work load at work.	0.0	5.4	23.2	42.4	29.0	4.05	.807
The nature of the workload gives me ample time to deal with work and social issues.	13.6	12.5	33.0	37.0	3.9	3.58	1.101
My workload gives me satisfaction with my work.	6.2	3.6	18.5	54.3	17.4	3.80	1.105
The work calendar (semesters) in the university is fairly distributed	0.0	10.9	9.4	56.9	22.8	3.94	.940
The work calendar gives me ample time to deal with my social issues.	0.0	12.7	5.5	60.1	21.7	4.06	.770
The work calendar gives me satisfaction with my work	1.8	9.8	12.7	54.7	21.0	3.80	.874

4.5.5 Work Place Norms, Organisational Work Life programmes and

Employee Work Outcomes

The Respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement or disagreement on statements on the availability of work place norms, and how they influenced their performance. The statements were rated on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 was strongly disagree and 5 strongly agree.

The statements sought to determine their responses in relation to Social support, Informal Organisation and Organisation culture. The results are presented in Table 4.7. The aggregate score in the table shows that lecturers generally agreed that work place norms influence employee work outcomes. The least mean was 3.34 while the highest was 4.04.

This is slightly lower than values realized in HR and Operational policies. This may be attributed to the fact that Work place norms are not as tangible as Organisational policies. In order to determine if work place norms enabled them to realize time for their social life, a majority agreed that Organisational culture (49.3%) enabled them realize social life.

However, 31.2 % neither agreed nor disagreed that social support gave them such time although. Asked whether the work place Norms influenced their work outcomes positively, a majority agreed that Information Technology (50.4%) Workload (54.3%) and academic calendar (54.7%) positively influenced their attitudes to work.

Table 4.7: Work Place Norms, Organisational Work Life Programmes and Employee Work Outcomes

Statement	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Likert mean	Std Deviation
It is the norm in the university for lecturers to share work tasks	2.5	10.5	34.8	42.0	10.2	3.47	.904
It is the norm for lecturers to stand in for colleagues when committed elsewhere	1.8	10.5	45.3	37.0	5.4	3.68	.849
Task sharing enables me to have time for my social life	1.8	10.5	25.4	49.3	13.0	3.34	.808
Due to sharing of tasks I undertake of my work duties better	1.8	2.5	20.3	48.6	26.8	3.61	.906
The grapevine is active in the University	0.0	2.5	24.6	49.3	23.6	3.96	.858
Friendly colleagues enable me to cope with both work and social life	0.0	7.4	14.9	50.5	27.2	3.94	.763
Work place friends make the work environment enjoyable	0.0	8.0	25.7	53.6	12.7	4.04	.762
Colleagues at the university are very supportive to one another on work issues.	5.8	5.8	33.3	41.3	13.8	3.71	.788
Colleagues easily stand in place of others at work when they have non-work commitments.	0.0	14.5	19.9	52.6	13.0	3.51	.996
Social support gives me an opportunity to undertake my work and social needs.	0.0	6.9	35.1	31.2	26.8	3.64	.885

These results can be attributed to the fact that since the lecturers had enough time for their social life, they were therefore they were motivated to execute work duties.

4.6 Remuneration

The study sought to determine the moderating effect of Remuneration on the relationship between Organisational Work life programmes and Employee work outcomes among Lecturers in Public universities in Kenya. It was therefore prudent to determine the lecturer's perception of their remuneration.

4.6.1 Salary Range

In order to determine the salaries, the lecturers earn, a salary range was given, where the respondents were expected to tick accordingly as indicated in table 4.8. From the table, it is notable that the majority of the lecturers, (59.8%) earn a gross salary of between KES.100, 000.00 up to KES. 150,000.00 per month, while the minority, 16.3% earn below KES. 100,000.00.

Table 4.8: Responses on Salary Earnings

Range	Frequency	Percent
Below 100,000.00	45	16.3
101,000.00 -150,000.00	165	59.8
151,000.00- 200,000.00	66	23.9
Total	276	100.0

4.6.2 Allowances/Incentives Available in Public Universities in Kenya

The respondents were expected to indicate the Allowances/incentives on their respective pay package from a list that was provided. The results are shown in table 4.9. All the respondents indicated the availability of House Allowance, Medical insurance, and Social Security. Leave allowance and part time classes. Performance based bonuses ranked lowest with only 23% lecturers and 15% deans indicating that they were part of their pay package.

This could be attributed to the fact that house allowance, medical insurance, annual leave and social security are statutory requirements. Performance based bonuses ranked lowest maybe since they are not statutory.

Table 4.9: Allowances/ Incentives available in Public Universities in Kenya

Allowance/Incentive	Academic Staff		Deans/Chairmen	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
House Allowance	276	100%	19	100.00%
Mileage Allowance	134	48.55%	16	84.21%
Study Allowance	128	46.37%	14	73.68%
Leave Allowance	228	82.60%	19	100.00%
Medical Insurance/allowance	276	100%	19	100.00%
Performance based bonuses	64	23.18%	3	15.78%
Overtime (extra load) internal part time class	213	77.17%	17	89.47%
Social security	276	100%	19	100.00%
Dependents Education support	132	47.82%	0	0.00%
Relocation Allowance	68	24.63%	0	0.00%

4.6.3 Lecturers Perception of their Remuneration

Statements regarding the nature of their remuneration were asked, where the respondents were expected to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements. A five point Likert was used (strongly agree =5, agree =4, neither agree nor disagree =3, disagree =2 and strongly disagree =1) as presented in Table 4.10.

From the Table, it is notable that the Likert mean for all the statements is above 1 but less than 2. This is a strong indication that majority of the Lecturers either disagreed or strongly disagreed on the statements concerning remuneration. The majority as per the levels of agreement or disagreement strongly disagreed that their compensation had adequate incentives (49.3%) that their pay package was commensurate to their job requirements and skills. Asked if their salary was sufficient to realize their financial plans comfortably, a majority, 58.3% disagreed. Most admitted that their salary did not give them job satisfaction with.

Table 4.10: Results on Lecturers Perception of their Remuneration

Statement	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Likert mean	Standard Deviation
The compensation given to me by the University is commensurate to my job requirements and skills.	47.1	31.5	12.7	8.7	0.0	1.83	.959
My salary is sufficient for me to realize my financial plans comfortably.	33.3	58.3	3.6	4.8	0.0	1.80	.720
The compensation given to me is competitive in relation to other industries in the country.	37.0	46.7	11.6	4.7	0.0	1.89	.949
My compensation has attractive incentives/allowances.	49.3	30.8	15.2	3.6	1.1	1.76	.914
The compensation given to me makes me not to seek employment elsewhere.	33.0	51.1	3.6	7.6	4.7	2.00	1.048
My salary gives me adequate satisfaction with my job.	41.3	50.4	8.3	0.0	0.0	1.84	1.068

This was a very clear indication that the lecturers did not consider their compensation as adequate, and that affected their job satisfaction negatively, hence compromising on the work outcomes.

4.6.5 Remuneration, Work Life programmes and Employee work outcomes

The Respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement of disagreement on statements on Remuneration in relation to Organisational Work life programmes. The statements were rated on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 was strongly disagree and 5 strongly agree. The statements sought to determine their responses in relation to

remuneration and if it affects the social time realized due to the effectiveness of Organisational work life Programmes.

According to Table 4.11, the least mean was 3.39 while the highest was 4.20. This is an indication that generally the lecturers were in agreement to the statements they were to agree or disagree to. The majority (50.0%) agreed that they took up additional work to supplement their income. From this it can be concluded that since the lecturers perceived their compensation as being inadequate, they therefore sought to supplement it by taking up additional jobs. When asked if the side jobs affected their social lives, 38.4% and 40.2% agreed and strongly agreed respectively that it did.

Table 4.11: Remuneration, Work Life Programmes and Employee Work Outcomes

Statement	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Likert mean	Standard Deviation
When I have time off work I take up additional work load in the university to supplement my income.	7.2	8.0	8.0	50.0	26.8	3.81	1.135
When I have time off work I engage in other activities elsewhere that seek to supplement my income.	3.6	4.1	12.3	49.6	30.4	3.99	.957
The additional load and additional income generating activities reduce the time I have for my social life.	11.2	1.8	8.3	38.4	40.1	3.95	1.254
The work load and activities that seek to supplement my income reduce the time am required at work.	11.2	16.3	21.4	23.9	27.2	3.39	1.338
The additional work load and income generating activities negatively affect my effectiveness at work.	3.6	12.7	12.3	52.6	18.8	3.70	1.030
If my salary package was adequate I would not take up the additional load.	3.6	4.7	8.7	33.7	49.3	4.20	1.028
I would prefer a higher salary within the official workload in the university than extra income outside the university.	6.5	6.9	9.1	26.4	51.1	4.09	1.209

This might mean that the additional work is taken during time for social life. Asked whether the side jobs affected their effectiveness at work, the majority, (52.5%) admitted that their work effectiveness was indeed affected.

Similarly, the majority felt that if they had a better salary they would not take up additional jobs, while others indicated that they would rather earn a higher salary within the University at 49.3% and 51.2% respectively. This explains that the additional jobs that the lecturers take to supplement their income take up the time for social and work life.

4.6.9 Reasons for Taking Additional Work

Asked for the reason they took additional Units/work within or outside the university above the recommended load, the majority, 92.76% and 100% responded that the additional load was taken to supplement their income as has been captured on table 4.12. Only 7.24% of lecturers took it as a way of rewarding the society.

Table 4. 12: Results for Reasons for Taking Additional Units/Work

	Academic staff		Deans/Chairmen	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Additional work taken to pass time	0	0.0	0	0.0
Additional work taken to supplement income	256	92.76%	19	100.0
Additional work is giving to society	20	7.24%	0	0.0
Total	276	100	19	100.0

The reason given by the majority for taking up additional work can be attributed to their earlier response that indicated that the majority perceived their income as being low and insufficient.

4.7 Employee Work outcomes

4.7.1 Organizational Work Outcomes

In order to determine the employee organizational work outcomes, the respondents were expected to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements. A five point Likert was used (strongly agree =5' agree =4' neither agree nor disagree =3, disagree =2 and strongly disagree =1) as presented in table 4.13. The Likert mean is between 2 and 3 implying the academic staff either disagree or strongly disagree with the statements.

Table 4.13: Organizational Work Outcomes

Statement	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Likert mean	Standard Deviation
I prepare and submit course outlines to students on time	4.0	26.1	24.3	22.5	23.1	3.3478	1.20696
I comfortably attend all classes allocated every semester	8.3	41.7	26.4	19.3	4.3	2.6957	1.01343
I am able to cover syllabus for all the classes	12.3	39.9	9.4	26.8	11.6	2.8551	1.26807
I effectively set moderate administer and mark examinations within the required times	4.0	12.2	31.2	21.4	31.2	3.6341	1.16000
I attend all school and Departmental meetings expected within the year	4.3	45.7	17.4	22.5	10.1	2.8841	1.11891
I regularly update my profile on the University website within the year	8.3	46.7	14.9	26.1	4.0	2.7065	1.06724
I am up to date on membership of professional bodies as expected by the employer	16.3	36.2	14.1	20.7	12.7	2.7717	1.29702
I am available and willing to serve in university boards when appointed to	4.0	26.4	20.7	31.9	17.0	3.3152	1.15298
I am actively engaged in community service as expected by the University	12.0	34.2	19.9	19.4	14.5	2.7029	1.22939
I am happy with the way I meet my work targets	12.7	26.8	31.9	19.2	9.4	2.8587	1.15284
If I had enough time I would meet my targets better	0.7	14.9	27.5	35.5	21.4	3.6196	1.00373

The majority indicated that they did not submit course outlines on time (26.1%) while 41.7% disagreed that they comfortably attended all classes allocated. Most did not update their profile in the University website (46.7%) while 44.2% disagreed that they engaged in community service as per their employer's expectations.

4.7.2 Personal Work Outcomes

The study sought to determine whether the lecturers are able to realize their personal work outcomes. Statements relating to the personal work outcomes were asked where the respondents were to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements as presented in Table 4.14. A five point Likert scale was used (strongly agree =5' agree =4' neither agree nor disagree =3, disagree =2 and strongly disagree =1). Similarly, the findings here are indicative that the lecturers generally did not realize their personal work goals as per their expectations.

Table 4. 14: Personal Work Outcomes

Statement	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Likert mean	Standard Deviation
I enroll for courses/workshops/seminars beyond the university's expectation in order to enhance my skills	37.3	29.3	14.1	12.7	6.6	2.2174	1.25184
I am involved in community service in order to improve my standing in the society	26.8	45.7	12.7	9.1	5.7	2.2138	1.11255
I conduct research and academic publishing over and above the organizational expectations.	20.7	43.8	18.8	13.1	3.6	2.3514	1.05986
I attend and make presentations in conferences in order to enhance my career growth.	8.0	50.7	20.7	13.0	7.6	2.6159	1.05708
I take a lot of time preparing for my work duties in order to assert my position as an expert	17.0	33.3	21.8	27.9	0.0	2.6051	1.06848
I consider myself highly satisfied with my job	15.9	50.0	20.3	9.4	4.4	2.2424	.84657
I have enough time to pursue goals that are over and above organizational expectations	30.8	44.6	16.3	8.3	0.0	2.1051	1.10199

4.8 Quantitative Analysis

4.8.1 Organizational policies, Work Place Norms and Employee Work

Outcomes

In order to establish the relationship between the independent variables organizational policies, work place norms and the dependent variable employee work outcomes, the Correlation analysis was carried out. Correlation measures the strength of association between two variables. (Routledge, 2003). The greater the absolute value of a correlation coefficient, the stronger the linear relationship. The strongest linear relationship is indicated by a correlation coefficient of -1 or +1 while the weakest linear relationship is indicated by a correlation coefficient near zero, whereas zero means there is no correlation. A strong or high correlation means that two or more variables have a close relationship with each other while a weak or low, correlation means that the variables are hardly related.

A positive correlation means that if one variable gets bigger, the other variable tends to get bigger while a negative correlation means that if one variable gets bigger, the other variable tends to get smaller Orodho, (2003). According to Table 4.15, a significant negative linear correlation between organizational policies, work place norms and employee work outcomes was observed with a coefficient value of -.671 and -.741 respectively.

Table 4.15: Correlations Analysis between OP, WPN and EWO

		Work Place Norms	Organizational Policies
Employee Work Outcomes	Pearson Correlation	-.741**	-.671**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	276	276

This indicates that as the organizational policies are made available, the lecturers' performance gets lower.

4.8.2 Testing Assumptions of Regression Model

Before regression analysis, the researcher conducted diagnostic tests as recommended by Conver 1999, Malhotra and Dash, 2011 and Njuguna 2013 to assess for the model's underlying statistical assumptions. This were linearity test, multi-collinearity test and normality test on the dependent variable.

4.8.2.1 Linearity

To meet the assumption of linearity, the linear relationship of the independent variables on the dependent variables was tested using the correlation coefficient as suggested by Greene, (2002) and Cohen, West and Aiken (2003). The linearity results are shown in Table 4.16. The findings indicate that there is a negative linear relationship between the independent variables and dependent variable measures. Work place norms ($R = -0.741$, $P = .000$), $P < 0.001$; Organizational Policies ($R = -0.671$, $P = 0.000$), $P < 0.001$). The correlation coefficients for the two independent variables were statistically significant with P values < 0.001 .

Table 4.16: Linearity Results

		Employee Work Outcomes	Conclusion
Work Place Norms	Pearson Correlation	-.741**	Linear
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	276	
Organizational Policies	Pearson Correlation	-.671**	Linear
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	276	

This is an indication of a linear relationship between each individual independent variable and the dependent variable as recommended by Field (2013). Therefore, the linear regression is suitable and can be used for further analysis.

4.8.2.2 Multi-collinearity Test

Multicollinearity in the study was tested using Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). A VIF of more than 10 ($VIF \geq 10$) indicate a problem of multicollinearity. According to Montgomery (2001) the cutoff threshold of 10 and above indicate the existence of multicollinearity while tolerance statistic values below 0.1 indicate a serious problem while those below 0.2 indicate a potential problem as shown in Table 4.17. The test was run by loading both independent variables at the same time while running the regression analysis. Organizational policies had a condition index of 14.875 while work norms had 20.351. Both had a tolerance level of 0.578 and VIF of 1.731.

Table 4.17: Results of Collinearity Diagnostics

	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
Organizational Policies	0.578	1.731
Work Place Norms	0.578	1.731

VIF values are considered a problem when they go beyond 10, and tolerance values below .10 should be a cause for concern. Since the values were within the stipulated, there was therefore no serious problem of multi-collinearity seen. Based on these the assumption of no multicollinearity between predictor variables was thus not rejected

as the reported VIF and tolerance statistics were within the accepted range, this means then the variables were not highly correlated and were thus appropriate for further analysis.

4.8.2.3 Normality Test

It was necessary to carry out the normality test as many of the statistical procedures used in the study including correlation, regression and t- test were based on the assumption that the data follows a normal distribution. This assumes that the population from which the sample was drawn was normally distributed (Ghasemi & Zahedias, 2012).

The researcher used the rule of thumb that a variable is reasonably close to normal if its skewness and kurtosis have values between -1.0 and + 1.0 as recommended by Myoung (2008). Table 4.18 shows that the dependent variable was normally distributed with skewness and kurtosis values ranging between -1.0 and +1.0. The values are Employee Work Outcome (Skewness=.447, Kurtosis=-.792).

Table 4. 18: Results for Normality Test

Variable Statistics	Descriptive	Statistical Value	Standard Error	Comment
Employee Work Outcome	skewness	.447	.0470	Normally distributed
	kurtosis	-.792	.0292	

The normality tests results as shown in Table 4.18 for all the dependent variable as recommended by Myoung (2008) to have values between -1 and + 1. This implies that the research variables are normally distributed and therefore further tests can be carried out on the data.

4.8.3 Regression analysis for Organizational Policies and Employee Work

Outcomes

In order to determine the relationship between Organisational policies and Employee work outcomes, a regression analysis was carried out. Regression results in Table 4.19 indicate that the goodness of fit for the regression between organizational policies and employee work outcome was satisfactory. An R squared of 0.45 indicates that 45% of the variations in employee work outcomes are explained by the variations in organizational policies. This further implies that that 55% of the unexplained variations in employee work outcomes is accounted for by the other variables including work place norms.

$$EWO = \beta_0 + \beta_1 OP + \epsilon$$

Where;

EWO = Employee Work Outcomes,

β_0 = Y intercept for Organisational policies

β_1 = gradient of the regression line,

OP = Organizational Policies and

ϵ = error term.

Table 4. 19: Organisational Policies Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	-.671^a	.450	.889	.24837

The correlation coefficient $R = -0.671$ indicates that there is a strong negative relationship between independent variable; organizational policies and the dependent variable employee work outcomes. The adjusted R^2 was 0.889 which indicated that

organizational policies explain 88.9% of variations in employee work outcomes. Therefore, further research should be conducted to investigate these other factors that affect employee work outcomes in public universities.

4.8.3.1 Analysis of variance for Organizational policies

The overall model significance is presented in Table 4.20. An F value of 2197.22 indicated that the overall model was significant as it was larger than the critical F value of 3.88 with (df=1, 275 at the P=0.05 level of significance as it is depicted on Table 4.20. The findings imply that organizational policies were statistically significant in explaining employee work outcomes in the public universities in Kenya.

Table 4. 20: ANOVA for Organizational Policies

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	135.544	1	135.544	2197.220	.000 ^b
	Residual	16.903	274	.062		
	Total	152.446	275			

a. Dependent Variable: Employee Work Outcomes

b. Predictors: (Constant), Organizational Policies

This means that the model adopted was significant P= 0.000 and fitted the study and that the variables tested fitted the model since the p value was less than 0.05.

4.8.3.2 Coefficients for Organizational Policies

In Table 4.21 which shows the Coefficients for Organizational Policies, the coefficient of the regression model of Organizational Policies on Employee Work Outcomes is captured. The results show that organizational policies contribute

significantly to the model since the p-value for the constant and gradient are less than 0.05. The findings imply that one negative unit change in organizational policies effectiveness leads to a change in employee work outcomes at the rate of 94.7%. This confirms the negative effect of organizational policies on employee work outcome. The findings imply that the universities had ineffective organizational policies which affected the employees work outcome negatively. The fitted equation is as shown below;

$$EWO = 0.61 - 0.947OP$$

Where;

EWO = Employee Work Outcomes,

OP = Organizational Policies

Table 4.21: Coefficients for Organizational Policies

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.617	.043		14.216	.000
	Organizational Policies	-.947	.020	.943	46.875	.000

4.8.4 Regression Analysis for Work Place Norms on Employee Work Outcomes

In order to determine the relationship between Work place norms on Employee work outcomes a regression analysis was carried out. As shown in Table 4.22 Model Summary, an R^2 value of 0.506 indicates that 50.6% of the variations in Employee Work Outcomes are explained by the variations in work place norms. This further

implies that that 49.4% of the unexplained variations in employee work outcomes is accounted for by the other variables including organizational policies.

$$EWO = \beta_0 + \beta_1 WPN + \epsilon$$

Where:

EWO = Employee Work Outcome,

β_0 = Y intercept

β_1 = gradient of the regression line,

WPN = Work place norms and

ϵ = error term.

Table 4.22: Model summary for WPN on EWO

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.712 ^b	.506	.503	.52500

The correlation coefficient $R = 0.712$ indicates that there is a strong relationship between independent variable; work place norms and the dependent variable employee work outcomes. The adjusted R^2 was 0.503 which indicated that work place norms explain 50.3% of variations in employee work outcomes. The adjusted R^2 gives a better estimate of the true population value. Therefore further research should be conducted to investigate these other factors that affect employee work outcomes in public universities.

4.8.4.1 Analysis of variance for the Model for WPN on EWO

The overall model significance is presented in Table 4.23. An F value of 6704.507 indicated that the overall model was significant as it was larger than the critical F

value of 3.88 with (df=1, 275 at the P=0.05 level of significance as it is depicted on table 4.23. the findings imply that work place norms were statistically significant in explaining employee work outcomes in public Universities in Kenya.

Table 4.23: ANOVA - Employee Work Outcomes on Work Place Norms

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	163.910	1	163.910	6704.507	.000 ^b
	Residual	6.699	274	.024		
	Total	170.609	275			

a. Dependent Variable: Work Outcome

b. Predictors: (Constant), Work Norms

This implies that the model adopted was significant (p value= 0.000) and fitted the study and that the variables tested fitted the model since the p value was less than 0.05.

4.8.4.2 Coefficients for EWO; WPN

Table 4.24 displays the coefficient of the regression model of Employee work outcomes on Work Place Norms. The results show that work place norms contribute significantly to the model since the p-value for the gradient was less than 0.05. The fitted equation is as shown below;

$$EWO = -0.043 - 1.001WPN$$

Where;

EWO = Employee Work Outcomes

WPN = Work Place Norms

Table 4.24: Coefficients of the regression model of EWO on WPN

Model	Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.
	Coefficients		Coefficients		
	Beta	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	-.043	.048		-.885	.377
WPN	-1.001	.012	.980	81.881	.000

4.8.5 Regressing the Dependent variable (EWO) on Both the Independent Variables (OP, WPN)

In order to determine the relationship between employee work outcomes, organisational policies, and Work place norms a multiple regression analysis was carried out. A regression model containing the two independent variables (organizational policies and work place norms) were ran to predict employee work outcomes from their omnibus effect. From Table 4.25 an R^2 value of .794 indicates that 79.4% of the variation in Employee Work Outcomes is explained by the model (which includes the variables of Organizational Policies and Work Place Norms).

$$EWO = \beta_0 + \beta_1 OP + \beta_2 WPN + \epsilon$$

Where;

- EWO = Employee Work Outcomes,
- β_0 = Y intercept for Organisational policies and Work place norms
- β_1 = coefficient of Organisational policies,
- β_2 = coefficient of workplace norms,
- OP =Organizational Policies

WPN = Work Place Norms.

ϵ = error term.

Hence Organizational Policies and Work Place Norms can explain 79.4% of the variation in Employee Work Outcomes while 20.6% of the unexplained variations in employee work outcomes is accounted for by the other variables not included in the model as captured in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25: Model Summary of EWO, OP & WPN

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.891 ^a	.794	.792	.32589

The correlation coefficient $R = 0.891$ indicates that there is a strong and positive relationship between independent variables; organizational policies, work place norms and the dependent variable employee work outcomes. The adjusted R^2 was 0.792 which indicated that combined effect of organizational policies and work place norms explain 88.9% of variations in employee work outcomes. Therefore further research should be conducted to investigate these other factors that affect employee work outcomes in public universities.

4.8.5.1 Analysis of variance for EWO, OP & WPN

Table 4.26 indicates the goodness of fit for the regression between the variables. ANOVA table shows the statistical significance of the results. An F- value of 3.143 ($df=1, 275$ and $p<0.05$) which shows that the model is suitable at 95% confidence level as shown in table 4.25. The findings imply that organizational policies and

work place norms were statistically significant in explaining employee work outcomes in public universities in Kenya.

Table 4. 26: ANOVA for the Model of EWO,OP,WPN

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Model						
1	Regression	.668	1	.334	3.143	.001 ^b
	Residual	1.699	274	.106		
	Total	2.367	275			

a. Dependent Variable: Employee Work Outcomes

b. Predictors: (Constant), Organizational Policies, Work Place Norms

This is indicative that the model adopted was significant and fitted the study and that the variables tested fitted the model.

4.8.5.2 Coefficients for EWO;OP;WPN

In order to determine the significance of coefficients Table 4.27 displays the coefficient of the regression model of Employee work outcomes on Organizational policies and Work place norms. From the table, all the coefficients of the model were significant at 5% level of significance. Therefore, Employee work outcome can be predicted using the following equation:

$$EWO = 3.757 - 0.3010 OWLP - 0.697 WPN$$

Where;

EWO = Employee Work Outcomes

OWLP = Organizational Work life Policies

WPN = Work Place Norms

Table 4. 27: Coefficients for Regression Model on OP and WPN

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	3.757	.899		4.177	.000
Work Place Norms	-.301	.205	.395	1.468	.000
Organizational Policies	-.697	.278	-.675	-2.505	.000

4.8.6 The Moderating effect of Remuneration

In order to determine the moderating effect of remuneration on relationship between Organisational work life programmes and employee work outcomes, a regression analysis was carried out on each independent variable with the moderator and can be explained by the model:-

$$EWO = \beta_0 + \beta_4 OWLP + \beta_5 OWLP * R + \varepsilon$$

Where:

EWO = Employee work outcome

OWLP = Composite index of organizational policies and Work Place Norms

*OWLP*R* = Organizational work life programme x Remuneration

R = Remuneration

β_0 = Constant

β_5 = Beta coefficient

ε = Error term

4.8.6.1 Regressing Moderator on the Relationship between Organisational

Work Life Programmes and Employee Work Outcome

This section provides results of analysis on the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable before and after introducing a moderating variable. The independent variable herein is; organizational work life programme with remuneration as the moderating variable. R square were done to determine the effects of the predictor variables on the dependent variable. The R square and the overall significance of the model were analyzed before and after introducing the moderating variable to independent variable. The introduction of the moderating variable introduces an interaction effect on the prediction strength of the independent variable on the dependent variable. The interaction effect leads to either a stronger or weaker prediction power of the independent variable on the dependent variable. In this study, interaction effect was created by use of the product between predictor variable and the moderating variable.

Table 4.28 shows the results of the R-square before involving the moderating variable (remuneration) and after incorporating the moderating variable to the independent variable (organizational work life programme). The results indicate that remuneration had a positive moderating effect on organizational work life programme (R squared change of 0.257) which translates to 89.54% change in the R-square. Results show that after introducing the moderating variable (remuneration) the R- square improved from 0.030 to 0.287 and was significant (0.000). This means remuneration moderates organizational work life programme positively and statistically significant.

Table 4.28: Moderation Tests Using R Square and Significance Change

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.172a	0.030	0.026	0.73480	0.030	8.344	1	274	0.004
2	.536b	0.287	0.282	0.63097	0.257	98.592	1	273	0.000

a Predictors: (Constant), Organization work life programmes

b Predictors: (Constant), Organization work life programmes, OWP_R

c Dependent Variable: Work Outcomes

4.8.6.2 ANOVA for model on Remuneration and OWP

The ANOVA results for organizational work life programme with moderating variable in Table 4.29 also indicates that the model was significant with $F=54.954$ and $p=0.000<0.05$ meaning that organizational work life programme and remuneration were statistically significant in explaining employee work outcome in public universities. A further test on the beta coefficient of the resulting model in Table 4.29 shows a significant change in the beta coefficients before and after the introduction of the moderating variable. The model remained statistically significant with $p \text{ value} = 0.000 < 0.05$.

Table 4.29: ANOVA on the Model for Remuneration and OWP

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.505	1	4.505	8.344	.000b
	Residual	147.941	274	.540		
	Total	152.446	275			
2	Regression	43.757	2	21.879	54.954	.000c
	Residual	108.689	273	.398		
	Total	152.446	275			

a Dependent Variable: Work Outcomes

b Predictors: (Constant), Organizational work life programmes

c Predictors: (Constant), Organizational work life programmes, OWP_R

4.8.6.3 Coefficients for Remuneration and Organisational Work Life

Programmes

In order to determine the significance of coefficients Table 4.29 shows the coefficients of the regression equations for both models. Model 1 indicates that the coefficient of for organizational worklife programme was negative and significant. In model 2 the coefficient of Organizational work life programme become positive and significant after moderation at 95% level of confidence. The Beta values for variables are organizational work life programme was -0.772 and 0.255 for OWP*R. This is indicative that Remuneration moderated the relationship between organizational work life programmes and employee work outcomes among lecturers in public universities in Kenya.

Table 4.30: Coefficients with Moderation _Remuneration

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		Beta	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.449	0.323		10.683	0.000
	Organization worklife programmes	-0.244	0.084	-0.172	-2.889	0.004
2	(Constant)	3.824	0.280		13.666	0.000
	Organization worklife programmes	-0.772	0.090	-0.545	-8.591	0.000
	OWP_R	0.255	0.026	0.630	9.929	0.000

a Dependent Variable: Work outcomes

The equations for moderations were captured in the following equations;

$$EWO = 3.449 - 0.244OWP + \varepsilon$$

$$EWO = 3.824 - 0.772OWP + 0.255OWP * R + \varepsilon$$

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS/RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the discussion of data analysis results and key research findings for each specific objective. The discussion is derived from the findings of both descriptive and inferential statistics. The discussions relate to the findings of the current study to existing theory and tests whether the results conformed to other related empirical studies. The main aim of this study was to determine the link between Organizational Work life programmes, Remuneration and Employee work outcomes among lecturers in Public Universities in Kenya.

5.2 Discussion

5.2.1 Organizational Work Life programmes and Employee Work Outcomes

The study sought to find out the relationship between Organizational work life programmes and Employee work outcomes among lecturers of public universities in Kenya. Organisational Policies in this study were classified as HR policies and Operational policies. Findings indicate that the Organisational work life programmes are available in the Public Universities in Kenya for use by lecturers. This is in agreement with Maxwell (2005) and Jennings & McDougald (2007) findings that many HR practitioners and Organisations now value the idea of introducing Organisational work-life programmes that aim at enabling employees realize balance between work and home life.

Similarly, Johnsrud & Rosser (2000) found that higher education organizations seek to provide work life programmes in order to enhance employee wellbeing and

productivity. Findings of this study show that Leaves, Flexibility and Autonomy at work also give lecturers enough time to deal with their social issues work issues. Baral & Bhargava (2010) found that employees without autonomy over their work are more likely to face a work and family imbalance which may lead to increased absence rates and lateness (Bond & Bunce, 2001). Increased autonomy leads to discretion over working conditions and scope for social interactions (Baral & Bhargava 2010). This is supported by findings by (Kara et al, 2002) who found that employees with greater flexibility are able to work longer by enabling them co-ordinate their work and non-work activities better. Baryamureeba, (2013) agrees with this by asserting that it is normal to find lecturers in class at 6.00a.m in the morning and beyond 5.00pm in the evening during normal working days in addition to teaching on Saturday which can be attributed to flexibility and work autonomy.

The current study found that Information technology, manageable workload and a favourable academic calendar were available in public universities in Kenya as part of Organisational work life programmes. This concurs with Manuel and Ramos (2008) findings that operational policies have been used to make employees realize work family balance for example, telecommuting and job sharing. Similarly, work place norms, which are manifest through organization culture and informal organization and social support, were also found to be available as Organization Work life programmes. This is in agreement with Martel (2002) who found that Work place norms were shaped by the Organization's culture and enhanced positive employee work attitudes. This is in supportive to the Social support theory that supportive work place norms positively improves employees' perception of the

workplace. However, a research on the organizational effects of work life practices by Kersley et al (as cited by Beauregard, 2009) found that sophisticated communications technology led to an increased contact with the workplace and therefore hindered the balance between work and home. Flexibility has also made lecturers to be in contact with students over the weekend, late in the evening or very early in the morning any time as was found by (Baryamureeba, 2013) implying that their time for social life is inhibited.

Organisational work life programmes no doubt enhance employees' performance. The current study shows that the respondents were in agreement that HR policies, operational policies and workplace norms positively influenced their work attitudes. This can be attributed to the fact that since they had had enough time for their social life therefore they were motivated to execute work duties. This conforms to Cayer (2003) findings that work family programmes enable employees to integrate both their work and family spheres thereby improving productivity. Similarly, these findings are supported by Eaton (2003) whose study shows that that presence of work family support services create greater performance through reducing work family conflicts, increased job satisfaction, and increased employee commitment.

This gives credence to the Role conflict theory as espoused by Kahn et al, (1964) on the effect on performance due to the conflict of work and family roles. This is also supported by a study by Cegarra-Leiva, Vidal & Cegarra-Navarro (2012) that sought to understand the link between Work life balance practices and Organisational outcomes. The findings showed that the availability of work life initiatives in organizations generates not only positive outcomes for employees but also increases

the organizational results for employers. Other studies by Wright and MacMahan, (2010); Kuvaas and Dysvik, (2010), reveal that HR practices have a positive and statistically significant relationship with performance. Similarly, (Major & Lauzun, 2010) findings that having supportive work-family culture and informal support greatly helps in dealing with work-family conflict; and thereby good performance. (Thompson et al., 1999) support by this notion by asserting that “Work-life culture” Is an emerging concept that seems to greatly influence both the utilization of work-life benefits and employee effectiveness at work.

It is not automatic that work life programmes are positive. The findings of this study seem to be contradicting previous empirical literature. Kodz et al (2002) found that very few employees made use of Organisational work life programmes since it will have a negative impact on their career prospects. While striving to achieve work and life balance it is possible hindrances may be realized so that instead of anticipated positive outcomes being realized, they were negative.

Jennings & McDougald (2007) advise that the Operational policies that organizations adopt at work are also likely to determine whether Organisational work life programmes’ effectiveness was realized or not. While striving to achieve work and life balance it is possible hindrances may be realized so that instead of anticipated positive outcomes being realized, they are negative. For example, in their study on work life balance, Bloom & Reenen (2006) found that some workplace norms may provide a competitive environment which can make working life more difficult and thereby compromise employee performance.

This gives credence to the findings of this study where lecturers work outcomes, both organizational and personal, were found to be poor despite the availability of Organisational work life programmes. The failure to achieve organizational work outcomes can be attributed to lack of time since most indicated that if they had enough time they would meet their work targets better.

This contradicts Ulshafer et al (2005) findings that Effectiveness in Organisational work life programmes leads to enhancement of social and work life and therefore improved productivity. Findings by a research conducted by Bigambo (2004) on the output of University Lecturers in Kenya that found that the performance of lecturers in Kenyan Public Universities was below expectations and set standards. The current study supports this notion by showing a significant negative linear correlation between organizational policies, work place norms and employee work outcomes.

This is means that, the more organizational work life programmes are enhanced, the more the performance deteriorates. The findings showed correlation coefficients are all negative, with the weakest relationship found in flexibility and availability of leaves, and work autonomy. Workload, calendar, organization culture and informal organizations also have a significant negative correlation to employee work outcome.

This implies that the HR policies have the weakest correlation since they are more definite unlike the others like social support and informal organization which are not tangible. This is indicative of the answers sought in relation to the Independent Variable, Organizational work outcome;

(i) How do Organizational policies affect Employee work outcomes among lecturers of public universities in Kenya?

From the discussion, the organisational policies do not necessarily enhance employee work outcomes. This is a pointer that as much as organizational policies negatively affected employee outcomes, they did so to a lesser extent than other factors which did not constitute part of this study. This means that there are other factors not of interest to this study that also affect employee performance negatively.

(ii) In what ways do Work place norms affect Employee work outcomes among lecturers of public universities in Kenya?

The study sought to establish the relationship between Work place norms and Employee work outcomes. From the discussion it is evident that work place norms negatively affected employee work outcomes, but to a lesser extent than other factors not in the study did. This is because of significant negative correlation between Work place norms and Employee work outcomes.

5.2.2 Remuneration and its Moderating Effect

This study also sought to establish the effect of Remuneration on the relationship between Organisational work life programmes and Employee Work outcomes. It was therefore prudent to investigate the perception of lecturers on their remuneration. The study found that the compensation given to lecturers constituted of basic pay alongside additional benefits. This could be considered as sufficient remuneration as supported by Desslers (2002) findings on the importance of a comprehensive pay package that enhances employees' morale to accomplish the organizations mission and goals. However, most notable was the finding that their

package did not constitute of performance based incentives. This might explain the effect of their pay on performance as Lingham, (as cited by Vika, 2014) found that bonuses have a positive effect on individual and group performance.

The current study also found the lecturers did not consider their compensation as adequate. This supports Waswa and Katana (2008); KIPPRA (2012) findings that lecturer in Kenyan public Universities and the East African region generally are considered to be poorly paid. This conforms to the Equity theory by Adams (1965) who asserts that employees will compare their rewards with what others receive, as much as they are concerned with the rewards they receive for their efforts. The theory is based on people's perception of fairness or equity which is usually subjective.

The study also found that the lecturers took other jobs to supplement their income. This may be attributed to the need to supplement their income since the response on remuneration. This supports (Baryamureeba, 2013) findings that Lecturers took up additional work on a part time basis since they were underpaid. Similarly, (Waswa et al, 2008) concurs with his findings that there has been movement of highly skilled academics to other sectors in the country seeking better pay. This also is in agreement with Boatengi et al (2013) who found that employees engage in moonlighting for various reasons, including the need to overcome financial constraints. This supports Dessler (2002) on the effectiveness of adequate compensation as it can help to attract and retain competent and talented individuals who can help the organization accomplish its mission and goals. A number of studies have established that highly competitive wage systems promote employee

commitment and thus result in the attraction and retention and commitment of a superior workforce. In a study conducted by Chew & Chan (2008) remuneration or compensation positively predicted organisational commitment and intention to stay. This means that inadequate compensation will make lecturers take up other jobs, denying them work life balance. The Role Conflict theory as theorized by Kahn et al, (1964) that highlighted the danger of not having a balance between work and family life supports these findings in that lack of the said balance makes it difficult for people to successfully perform the roles that they are assigned.

It was also found that lecturers did take up additional work when they had time off work. This can be said it was so in order to supplement their income. This could be due to their earlier response that indicated that the majority perceived their income as being low and insufficient. This supports the findings of Baryamureeba, (2013) that it is normal to find lecturers working at more than two universities in a bid to supplement the meager salary.

Similarly, In a study in Ghana, the practice of taking up additional jobs was found to be more prevalent in the public sector than the private formal sector due partly to strict supervision and higher wages in the latter which make the general environment less conducive for such activities (Owusu, 2001). In the public sector, teachers and lecturers were found to have highest participation rate in multiple economic activities because of availability of overtime opportunities within their formal employment, while Lecturers, it was found, had a flexible work schedule which gives them the opportunity to take additional jobs. Odinga (2010) concurs that Lecturers have ready opportunities to take up part time commitments while Waswa and Katana (2008)

found that qualified academic staff have resigned from Kenyan public universities and secured better paying jobs abroad.

The current study also found that Organisational and personal goals were affected negatively by the additional load. This is in agreement with Ruderman et al, (2002) who found that Involvement in multiple individual roles were a disadvantage to both the individual and the organization (Ruderman et al, This seems to agree with Wekesa and Nyaroo (2013) who found that poor remuneration has often been given as a cause of dissatisfaction and low performance among teachers.

Similarly, a study conducted on Jimma University academic staff, India, found that in order to motivate faculty members, the university must offer competitive level of compensation (Negash et al, 2014). In their study on moonlighting among University Lecturers and their performance in the South-Western Nigeria, Ologunde et al (2013) it was noted that having to teach in many places (moonlighting) has negative implications on the performance of Nigerian university lecturers. The quality of teaching decreases as the time available for administration and research also reduces.

This seems to give credence to the findings of this study that show dismal organisational and work outcomes despite the availability of organisational work outcomes with significant negative linear correlation between organizational policies, work place norms and employee work outcomes found. A number of factors have been attributed to this contradiction. This study found that the perceived poor remuneration by lecturers in public universities was likely to divert the use of non-work life to income generating activities.

No other known study was found to have determined the effect of remuneration as factor inhibiting the perceived effect of Work life programmes. This can be attributed to the fact that the nature of compensation has a motivational aspect. This is in agreement with the view that employees' reaction towards financial incentives is positive since they serve as motivators Lingham, 2008 (as cited by Vika, 2014). In the same light, it has been found that employees may engage in activities that do not make them realize the balance like taking up additional jobs when away from work (Meyer et al, 2004; Baryamureeba, 2013).

On the contrary, research findings have shown that even highly paid employees may still be dissatisfied if they do not like the nature of their job (Young, Worchel, & Woehr, 1998). This is an indication that not a single factor has been found to inhibit the Organisational Work life programmes. Other factors however have been attributed to this moderating effect.

Edwards & Rothbard (2000) in their study found that demographic factors affected the expected positive effect of work life initiatives on employee outcomes. Previous research has shown that some employees fail to take advantage of the programmes for fear of being viewed as less committed workers (Hewlett, 2007; Thompson, 2008). This seems to agree with (Allen, 2001) in his research on the impact of work life practices found that work-life balance practices improve organizational performance however, via other routes, such as reduced overheads in the case of employees working from home.

From the discussion, the third research question may be answered thus;

(iii) How does Remuneration affect the relationship between organizational work life programmes and employee work outcomes among lecturers of public universities in Kenya?

Remuneration has a moderating effect of on the relationship between organizational policies and employee work outcome lectures in public universities in Kenya. This explains why despite the presence of organisational work life programmes, lecturers' performance was still low contrary to expectations.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations for action, contributions of the study to knowledge and future research direction. The main aim of this study was to determine the relationship between organizational work life programmes, remuneration and employee work outcomes among lecturers in public universities in Kenya.

6.2 Conclusions

The study sought to find out the relationship between organizational work life programmes, remuneration and employee work outcomes among lecturers of public universities in Kenya. Specifically, it sought to determine relationship between organizational work life programmes and employee work outcomes.

This study concludes that employee work outcomes are not necessarily enhanced by the availability of organisational work life programmes. This is so since despite organizational work life programmes being availed by public universities in Kenya to lecturers enhance their attitudes towards improved performance, their work outcomes, both organizational and personal, are still dismal. This was arrived at as a significant negative linear correlation between organizational policies, work place norms and employee work outcomes was established. This is indicative that the more organizational work life programmes are enhanced, the more their performance deteriorates. It was also concluded that remuneration moderates the relationship

between organizational policies and employee work outcome lectures in public universities in Kenya. Remuneration was found to be statistically significant in explaining the variation between organisational work programmes in employee work outcomes. This can be attributed to the perception by lecturers that their pay was inadequate. We can therefore conclude that availability of organisational work life initiatives do not automatically translate to positive work outcomes, since the ‘free’ time realized may be utilized in other activities that do not enhance work life balance. Similarly other factors may render ineffective the expected effect of availability of work life programmes.

6.3 Contributions of the Study to Knowledge

Contribution to knowledge has an implication of breaking entirely new grounds or exploring new areas (Oliver, 2004 as cited by Swai, 2014). The aspect of originality involves coming up with a study that had not been captured in a similar research (Swai, 2014). The study sought to establish the link between organizational work life programmes and employee work outcomes among lecturers in public universities in Kenya. Previous research in developing countries and the East African region in particular attest to a positive relationship between Organisational work outcomes in the realization of improved work outcomes. In addition, other studies have shown a moderating effect of work life practices by variables such as age, marital and parental status, gender, among others, on the attainment of Work life balance. A few others have sought to establish, and found moderators on work outcomes.

This study contributes to empirical literature by establishing that organizational work life practices have a negative statistically significant relationship to employees’ work

outcomes contrary to previous findings. Similarly, the study contributes to knowledge by establishing the need of support policies and practices for organisational work life programmes to enhance the realization of work life balance among employees. In addition, the study also adds to existing literature the fact that inadequate compensation can lead to employees diverting the use of organisational work life practices. Instead of realizing quality work life during the 'free time', employees seek more income, and therefore leading to compromised work outcomes.

Similarly, the study reveals the importance of the variables; HR policies, organizational policies, work place norms and remuneration in influencing both personal and organizational work outcomes among lecturers in public universities in Kenya. In addition, the study contributes to knowledge by justifying the need of having Work life policies that are linked to compensation policies.

This will help in the realization of the desired effect of organisational work life programmes. This is in relation to the negative and statically significant findings of organisational work life programmes on both organizational and individual work outcomes in light of the effect of poor pay. Therefore, the proper administration and linkage of organisational work outcomes to remuneration is beneficial to both the organization and the individual employees.

The study also comes up with a model where HR policies, organisational policies and work place norms are independent variables, organisational work outcomes the dependent variable, and remuneration the moderating variable.

6.4 Recommendations for Policy Implications

Several HRM policy implications can be drawn from this study for the effective management of Organisational work life programmes in Higher education in Kenya. The recommendations can also be generalised to other sectors with similar characteristics to the population under study in the country. The study sought to assess the relationship between Organizational work life programmes and Employee work outcomes among lecturers of public universities in Kenya.

The researcher recommends HR practitioners introduce support policies to ensure that Organisational work life programmes enable employees to have a balance between work and life, and realize positive work outcomes. It is also recommended that the salary structure of lecturers in public universities be improved. This can be realized by having performance based incentives included so that the lecturers do not need to take up additional jobs to supplement their income.

The researcher also recommends that HR practitioners link the organizational work life programmes with compensation policies. This will ensure that the work life programmes realize the intended effect since remuneration was found to moderate the relationship between organizational policies and employee work outcomes among lectures in public universities in Kenya. Lastly, other variables should be studied in order to establish if there are other moderators to work life programmes on employee work outcomes. This will help in the adoption of relevant policy decisions.

6.5 Limitations of the Study

The first limitation was that the study was that it was specific to public universities in Kenya, and specifically the Business schools. This means that the results obtained

may not be generalizable to other sectors in Kenya or even other faculties in public universities that may lack similar characteristics with Business schools. The second limitation was that the choice of a Correlational design was made on the assumption that the relations on the data variables were linear. This meant that it was not possible to determine causal relations in the event they were. Lastly, the area of study in Kenya is under researched and it therefore was difficult to obtain a lot of secondary data from other similar studies in Kenya.

6.6 Areas for Further Studies

Following this study, the researcher gave recommendations that in order to realize generalizability, further research into Remuneration as a moderator of Work life programmes among employees in Private universities be done. Similarly, the same should be done in other Schools in Public Universities other than the Business School. Other sectors whose nature of work is different from lecturers, should also be researched on the same. In addition, future studies should also adopt a Causal research design in a similar study to determine if the findings will be any different. Lastly, the researcher recommends further research on other moderators that may inhibit the effect of Organisational work life programmes.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A (i): Reliability Test Results and Component Matrix

Variable	No of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Remuneration	7	0.840
Organizational Work Outcomes	11	0.905
Personal Work Outcomes	7	0.900
Organizational Policies	22	0.945
Work Place Norms	11	0.827

Appendix A (ii): KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.688
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2.3x10 ⁻¹⁶
	Df	400
	Sig.	.000

Appendix A (iii): Component Matrix for Organisational Work Outcomes

	Component		
	1	2	3
I attend all School and Departmental meetings expected to within the year.	0.791	0.207	-0.25
I regularly update my profile on the university website within the year.	0.779	0.113	0.092
I comfortably attend all classes allocated every semester	0.767	0.25	-0.124
I Prepare and submit course outlines to students on time.	0.698	0.508	0.137
I am able to cover the syllabus for all the classes.	0.669	0.607	-0.064
I Effectively set, moderate, administer and mark examinations within the required timeline	0.66	0.553	0.161
I am available and willing to serve in University boards when appointed to.	0.182	0.879	0.056
I am up to date on membership of professional bodies as expected by my employer.	0.246	0.873	0.07
I am actively engaged in community service as expected by the university.	0.277	0.765	-0.193
I am happy with the way I meet my work targets.	0.469	0.613	-0.512
If I had enough time I would meet my targets better	0.027	0.047	0.94
I am not influenced by other external engagements to perform my work			0.415
I volunteer for extra work assignments			0.402
The university has a ability to retain exceptional employees			0.396
I am take up colleagues tasks in their absence			0.389

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

Appendix A (iv): Component Matrix for Personal Work Outcomes

Statement	Component		
	1	2	3
I have enough time to pursue goals that are over and above organizational expectations	0.907	0.177	0.085
I attend and make presentations in conferences in order to enhance my career growth.	0.73	0.36	0.34
I conduct research and academic publishing over and above the organizational expectations.	0.702	0.493	0.211
I enroll for courses/workshops/seminars beyond the university's expectation in order to enhance my skills	0.542	0.47	0.53
I consider myself highly satisfied with my job	0.347	0.875	0.048
I am involved in community service in order to improve my standing in the society	0.237	0.594	0.583
I take a lot of time preparing for my work duties in order to assert my position as an expert	0.138	0.04	0.922

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

Appendix A (v): Component Matrix for Organisational Policies

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
The work calendar (semesters) in the university is fairly distributes	0.827	0.24	0.209	0.019
There is flexibility at my work in terms of reporting, and leaving work	0.736	0.055	-0.06	0.289
The work calendar gives me ample time to deal with my social issues.	0.696	0.28	0.444	-0.078
Lecturers in this university have a manageable official work load at work.	0.681	0.262	0.273	0.338
The leave options provided by the University motivate me to undertake my work duties	0.657	0.354	0.011	0.295
The nature of the workload gives me ample time to deal with work and social issues.	0.636	0.149	0.398	0.437
The leave options give me enough time for work and my social life	0.591	0.201	-0.014	0.444
It easy for me get an appropriate leave to deal with the issue at hand	0.511	0.419	-0.031	0.251
Flexibility at work gives me enough time for my work and my social life	0.431	0.791	0.218	0.093
The University provides lecturers with adequate leave options	0.086	0.724	0.12	0.084
It is acceptable for lecturers to perform some work duties from home	0.298	0.701	0.229	0.35
My workload gives me satisfaction with my work.	0.571	0.621	0.193	0.174
The nature of my work allows me to work for long periods without direct supervision.	0.111	0.616	0.206	0.574
The work calendar gives me satisfaction with my work	0.519	0.597	0.283	0.017
Work autonomy enables me cope with both work and social life adequately	0.309	0.566	0.37	0.414
The use of Information technology motivates me in undertaking my work duties	0.221	0.243	0.85	-0.019
Information technology enhances my realization of enough work and social time.	0.197	0.254	0.842	-0.048
Information technology facilitates working from locations away from the work station.	-0.132	0.053	0.822	0.352
The use of information technology is allowed in some job tasks in this University.	0.131	0.009	-0.007	0.705
Lecturers determine how to go about most tasks of their work.	0.514	0.262	-0.066	0.622
Work autonomy enhances my commitment to my work duties	0.179	0.489	0.194	0.587
Flexibility at work enhances my morale in undertaking my work duties	0.415	0.295	0.286	0.569

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Appendix A (vi): Component Matrix for Workplace Norms

	Component		
	1	2	3
Task sharing enables me to have time for my social life	0.756	0.314	0.052
Friendly colleagues enable me to cope with both work and social life	0.754	0.108	0.08
Due to sharing of tasks I undertake of my work duties better	0.748	0.478	0.011
It is the norm in the university for lecturers to share work tasks	0.534	0.385	0.172
It is the norm for lecturers to stand in for colleagues when committed elsewhere	0.061	0.807	0.048
The grapevine is active in the University	0.308	0.656	0.011
Social support gives me an opportunity to undertake my work and social needs.	0.373	0.627	0.462
Social support enhances my work commitment.	0.26	0.603	0.342
Colleagues at the university are very supportive to one another on work issues.	-	0.268	0.233
Colleagues easily stand in place of others at work when they have non-work commitments.	0.11	0.101	0.851
Work place friends make the work environment enjoyable	0.567	0.247	0.583

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Appendix A (vii): Component Matrix for Remuneration

	Component	
	1	2
The compensation given to me makes me not to seek employment elsewhere.	0.905	0.14
My compensation has attractive incentives/allowances.	0.866	0.286
My salary gives me adequate satisfaction with my job.	0.696	0.549
The compensation given to me by the University is commensurate to my job requirements and skills.	0.084	0.894
My salary is sufficient for me to realize my financial plans comfortably.	0.495	0.745
The compensation given to me is competitive in relation to other industries in the country.	0.541	0.617

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

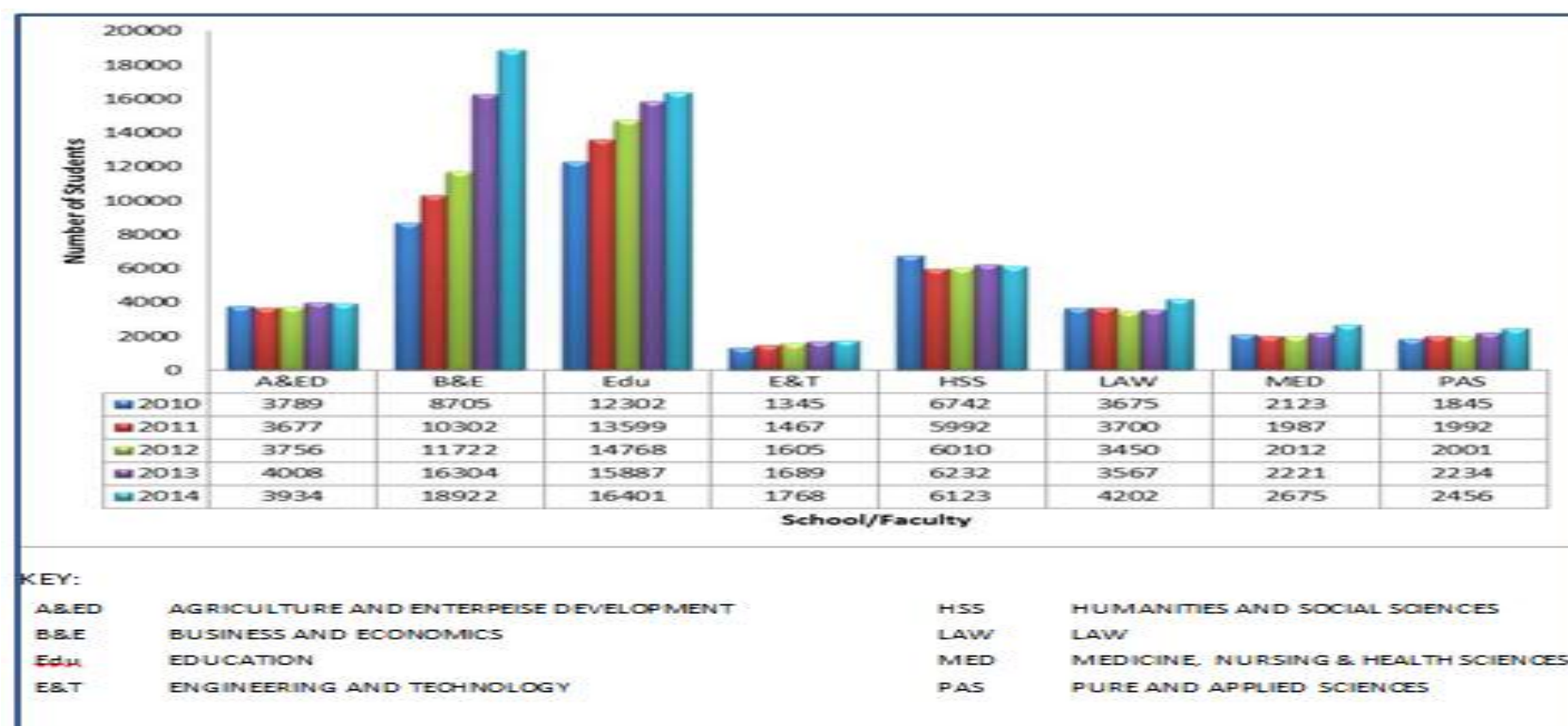
Appendix B (iii): Students Enrolled in Kenyan Universities Per School (2010-2014)

Appendix B (i) Students enrolment in Kenyan universities per school over the last five years

Sno	School/ Faculty	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	TOTAL
1.	AGRICULTURE AND ENTERPEISE DEVELOPMENT	3,789	3,677	3,756	4,008	3,934	19,164
2.	BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS	8,705	10,302	11,722	16,304	18,922	65,955
3.	EDUCATION	12,302	13,599	14,768	15,887	16,401	72,957
4.	ENGINEERING AND TECHNOLOGY	1,345	1,467	1,605	1,689	1,768	7,874
5.	HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES	6,742	5,992	6,010	6,232	6,123	31,099
6.	LAW	3,675	3,700	3,450	3,567	4,202	18594
7.	MEDICINE, NURSING AND HEALTH SCIENCES	2,123	1,987	2,012	2,221	2,675	11,018
8.	PURE AND APPLIED SCIENCES	1,845	1,992	2,001	2,234	2,456	10,528
	TOTAL	40,526	42,716	45,324	52,142	53,806	234,514

Source: www.uonbi.ac.ke, www.mu.ac.ke, www.ku.ac.ke, www.egerton.ac.ke www.maseno.ac.ke, www.jkuat.ac.ke, www.mmust.ac.ke, (University Graduation lists; 2010-2014).

Appendix B (iv): Graphical presentation of Students Enrolment in Kenyan Universities Per School (2010-2014)



Source: Researcher (2015)

Appendix C: Questionnaires for Lecturers

This questionnaire is to be filled by Faculty members/Lecturers whose main duties academic teaching

This questionnaire is intended to collect data in order to establish *the link between Organizational work life programmes, Remuneration and Employee Work outcomes among lecturers in Public Universities in Kenya*. This survey is confidential. Only the researcher sees and processes the questionnaires.

SECTION A: GENERAL INFORMATION

Kindly answer the following questions:

1. What is your job title?(tick as appropriate)

Tutorial Fellow	Assistant lecturer	Lecturer	Senior lecturer

Other.....

2. Name of University working in (optional).....

3. What is your Gender? (tick as appropriate)

Male	Female

- 4. Under which age bracket do you fall as indicated below? (Tick as appropriate)**

Below 30	31 - 40	41 - 50	Above 50

- 5. What are your Terms of service?**

Contract	Permanent and Pensionable

- 6. For how long have you worked in this University?**

Up to 3 years	4 – 6 years	7years and above

SECTION B: ORGANISATIONAL WORK LIFE PROGRAMMES

7. Below is a list of Organizational Work life Programmes. Which ones are availed in your university for lecturers?(tick as appropriate)

Work life programmes	Tick
Leave options eg. Annual, Maternity,	
Flexibility in reporting and leaving work	
Technology support, eg. Teleworking	
Favourable official work load	
Favourable Academic calendar	
Work autonomy	
Supportive work culture	
Informal organization	
Social support	

Any other(s).....

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
The University provides lecturers with adequate leave options					
It easy for me get an appropriate leave to deal with the issue at hand					
The leave options give me enough time for work and my social life					
The leave options provided by the University motivate me to undertake my work duties					
There is flexibility at my work in terms of reporting, and leaving work					
It is acceptable for lecturers to perform some work duties from home					
Flexibility at work gives me enough time for my work and my social life					
Flexibility at work enhances my morale in undertaking my work duties					
The nature of my work allows me to work for long periods without direct supervision.					
Lecturers determine how to go about most tasks of their work.					
Work autonomy enables me cope with both work and social life adequately					
Work autonomy enhances my commitment to my work duties					

8. Below are statements regarding Organizational *Policies*(*HR policies*) that constitute of work life programmes in public Universities in Kenya Kindly indicate the response that matches your opinion. Please tick as appropriate in the boxes provided using the scale 5=strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 2= disagree, 1= strongly disagree.

9. Below are statements regarding Organisational *Policies*(*Operational policies*) that constitute of work life programmes in public Universities in Kenya Kindly indicate the response that matches your opinion. Please tick as appropriate in the boxes provided using the scale 5=strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 2= disagree, 1= strongly disagree.

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
The use of information technology is allowed in some job tasks in this University.					
Information technology facilitates working from locations away from the work station.					
Information technology enhances my realization of enough work and social time.					
The use of Information technology motivates me in undertaking my work duties					
Lecturers in this university have a manageable official work load at work.					
The nature of the workload gives me ample time to deal with work and social issues.					
My workload gives me satisfaction with my work.					
The work calendar (semesters) in the university is fairly distributes					
The work calendar gives me ample time to deal with my social issues.					
The work calendar gives me satisfaction with my work					

10. The statements below regard *Work place norms* that are found in public Universities in Kenya. Kindly indicate the response that matches your opinion.
- Please tick as appropriate in the boxes using the scale 5=strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 2= disagree, 1= strongly disagree.

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
It is the norm in the university for lecturers to share work tasks					
It is the norm for lecturers to stand in for colleagues when committed elsewhere					
Task sharing enables me to have time for my social life					
Due to sharing of tasks I undertake of my work duties better					
The grapevine is active in the University					
Friendly colleagues enable me to cope with both work and social life					
Work place friends make the work environment enjoyable					
Colleagues at the university are very supportive to one another on work issues.					
Colleagues easily stand in place of others at work when they have non-work commitments.					
Social support gives me an opportunity to undertake my work and social needs.					
Social support enhances my work commitment.					

SECTION C: REMUNERATION

11. What is your gross salary range in Kenya Shillings as shown below?

Tick in the space below your salary range.

Below 100,000.00	101,000.00- 150,000.00	151,000.00- 200,000.00	Above 201,000.00

12. Below is a list of allowances/incentives. Which ones are availed in your university in lecturers compensation (tick or negate as appropriate)

Allowance/ Incentive	Tick	Allowance/ Incentive	Tick
House Allowance		Performance based bonuses	
Mileage allowance		Overtime (extra load) eg.Internal part time classes	
Study Allowance		Social security	
Leave allowance		Dependants' Education Support	
Medical Insurance/allowance		Relocation allowance	

Any other(s).....

13. The following statements regard the perception of lecturers about their Remuneration. Kindly indicate the response that matches your opinion by ticking the appropriate box using the scale 5=strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 2= disagree, 1= strongly disagree.

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
The compensation given to me by the University is commensurate to my job requirements and skills.					
My salary is sufficient for me to realize my financial plans comfortably.					
The compensation given to me is competitive in relation to other industries in the country.					
My compensation has attractive incentives/allowances.					
The compensation given to me makes me not to seek employment elsewhere.					
My salary gives me adequate satisfaction with my job.					

14. The following statements regard the manner in which the lecturer's perception of their remuneration affects the intended effect of organizational work programmes on their work outcomes. Kindly indicate the response that matches your opinion by ticking the appropriate box using the scale 5=strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 2= disagree, 1= strongly disagree.

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
When I have time off work I take up additional work load in the university to supplement my income.					
When I have time off work I engage in other activities elsewhere that seek to supplement my income.					
The additional load and additional income generating activities reduce the time I have for my social life.					
The work load and activities that seek to supplement my income reduce the time am required at work.					
The additional work load and income generating activities negatively affect my effectiveness at work.					
If my salary package was adequate I would not take up the additional load.					
I would prefer a higher salary within the official workload in the university than extra income outside the university.					

SECTION D: EMPLOYEE WORK OUTCOMES

15. The following table seeks information on some of your work duties. Kindly indicate the values requested on the spaces provided.

Work task (recommended/official work load)	Number allocated/expected per academic year (last year)	Number attained the previous academic year (Last year)
Teaching units		
Students for supervision		
Academic publications on refereed journals		
Making presentations in Conferences		
Workshops/short course attendance		
Writing grant proposals that attract funding		
Engagement in community service		

16. The following statements regard employee *Organizational work outcomes*.

Kindly indicate the response that matches your opinion by ticking the appropriate box using the scale 5=strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 2= disagree, 1= strongly disagree.

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
I Prepare and submit course outlines to students on time.					
I comfortably attend all classes allocated every semester					
I am able to cover the syllabus for all the classes.					
I Effectively set, moderate, administer and mark examinations within the required timeline					
I attend all School and Departmental meetings expected to within the year.					
I regularly update my profile on the university website within the year.					
I am up to date on membership of professional bodies as expected by my employer.					
I am available and willing to serve in University boards when appointed to.					
I am actively engaged in community service as expected by the university.					
I am happy with the way I meet my work targets.					
If I had enough time I would meet my targets better					

17. The following statements regard employee *Personal work outcomes*. Kindly indicate the response that matches your opinion by ticking the appropriate box using the scale 5=strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 2= disagree, 1= strongly disagree.

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
I enroll for courses/workshops/seminars beyond the university's expectation in order to enhance my skills					
I am involved in community service in order to improve my standing in the society					
I conduct research and academic publishing over and above the organizational expectations.					
I attend and make presentations in conferences in order to enhance my career growth.					
I take a lot of time preparing for my work duties in order to assert my position as an expert					
I consider myself highly satisfied with my job					
I have enough time to pursue goals that are over and above organizational expectations					

18. Which of the following statements (one) best describes the main reason you take the additional load/work? (tick accordingly).

The additional load/work is taken to pass time

☐

The additional load/work is taken to supplement my income

☐

The additional load/ work is about giving back to the society

☐

Other.....

Thank you for your time to fill in the questionnaire

Appendix C: Questionnaire for Deans/Departmental Chairpersons

This questionnaire is to be filled by Lecturers who also hold administrative positions (School Deans or Departmental Chairpersons)

This questionnaire is meant to test *the link between Organizational work life programmes, Remuneration and Employee Work outcomes among lecturers in Public Universities in Kenya*. This survey is **confidential**. Only the researcher sees and processes the questionnaires.

SECTION A: GENERAL INFORMATION

Kindly answer the following questions. Tick as appropriate.

1. What is your job title?

Dean	Departmental Chair

2. Name of University you work in (optional).....

3. What is your Gender (tick as appropriate)

Male	Female

4. Age Bracket (Tick as appropriate)

Below 30	31 - 40	41 - 50	Above 50

5. For how long have you worked in this University?

Up to 3 years	4 – 6 years	7years and above

SECTION B: ORGANISATIONAL WORK LIFE PROGRAMMES

**6. Below is a list of Organizational Work life Programmes. Which ones are
availed in your University for lecturers? (tick as appropriate)**

Work life programmes	Tick
Leave options eg. Annual, Maternity,	
Flexibility in reporting and leaving work	
Technology support, eg. Teleworking	
Favourable work load	
Favourable Academic calendar	

Work autonomy	
Supportive culture	
Informal organization	
Social support	

Any other (Specify).....

SECTION C: REMUNERATION

7. Below is a list of components of a salary package. Which ones are available in your university for lecturers (tick as appropriate)

Allowance/ Incentive	Tick
Basic salary	
House Allowance	
Mileage allowance	
Study Allowance	
Medical allowance/insurance	
Leave allowance	
Performance based incentives/bonuses	
Overtime (extra load) eg, Internal part time classes	
Social security	

Any other(s).....

- 8. Which of the following statements (one) best describe the main reason they take the additional load/work? (Tick accordingly).**

The additional load/work is taken to pass time ☐

The additional load/work is taken to supplement their income ☐

The additional load/ work is about giving back to the society ☐

Other.....

Thank you for your time to fill in the questionnaire

Appendix D: Research Clearance Letter

THE OPEN UNIVERSITY OF TANZANIA
DIRECTORATE OF RESEARCH, PUBLICATIONS, AND POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

P.O. Box 23409 Fax: 255-22-2668759 Dar es
 Salaam, Tanzania,
<http://www.out.ac.tz>



Tel: 255-22-2666752/2668445 ext.2101
 Fax: 255-22-2668759,
 E-mail: drpc@out.ac.tz

06/08/2014

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: RESEARCH CLEARANCE

The Open University of Tanzania was established by an act of Parliament no. 17 of 1992. The act became operational on the 1st March 1993 by public notes No. 55 in the official Gazette. Act number 7 of 1992 has now been replaced by the Open University of Tanzania charter which is in line the university act of 2005. The charter became operational on 1st January 2007. One of the mission objectives of the university is to generate and apply knowledge through research. For this reason staff and students undertake research activities from time to time.

To facilitate the research function, the vice chancellor of the Open University of Tanzania was empowered to issue a research clearance to both staff and students of the university on behalf of the government of Tanzania and the Tanzania Commission of Science and Technology.

The purpose of this letter is to introduce to you **Mr Alexander Katuta Kyule; Reg. No. HD/B/1146/ K.13**, who is a PhD student at the Open University of Tanzania. By this letter, **Mr Alexander Katuta Kyule** has been granted clearance to conduct research in Kenya. The title of his research is **"The link between organisational work life programmes, Remuneration and Employee Work outcomes among lecturers in Public Universities in Kenya"**.

The period which this permission has been granted is from 06/08/ 2014 to 06/10/2014.

In case you need any further information, please contact:
 The Deputy Vice Chancellor (Academic); The Open University of Tanzania; P.O. Box 23409; Dar es Salaam. Tel: 022-2-2668820

We thank you in advance for your cooperation and facilitation of this research activity.
 Yours sincerely,

Prof Shaban Mbogo

For: VICE CHANCELLOR

THE OPEN UNIVERSITY OF TANZANIA

Appendix E: Letter of Introduction

To.....

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: COLLECTION OF RESEARCH DATA

My name is Alexander Katuta Kyule, a student at The Open University of Tanzania, Dar es Salaam, and Pursuing PhD in Business Administration – Human Resource Management. I am currently carrying out a research on *‘assessing the link between Organizational work life programmes and Employee Work outcomes among lecturers in Public Universities in Kenya’*. I am at this point in the process of gathering relevant data for the purpose of this study. You have been identified as a key respondent in this study. I therefore write to kindly request for your highly appreciated assistance towards making this study a success by taking some time to respond to the attached questionnaire. I assure you that your responses will be treated with confidentiality and will be used solely for the purpose of this study.

It will appreciate if you can fill the questionnaire the soonest possible to enable early finalization of the study. Thank you for your valuable time and responses.

Yours Sincerely

Alexander K. Kyule

Student Reg. No. HD/B/1146/K.13